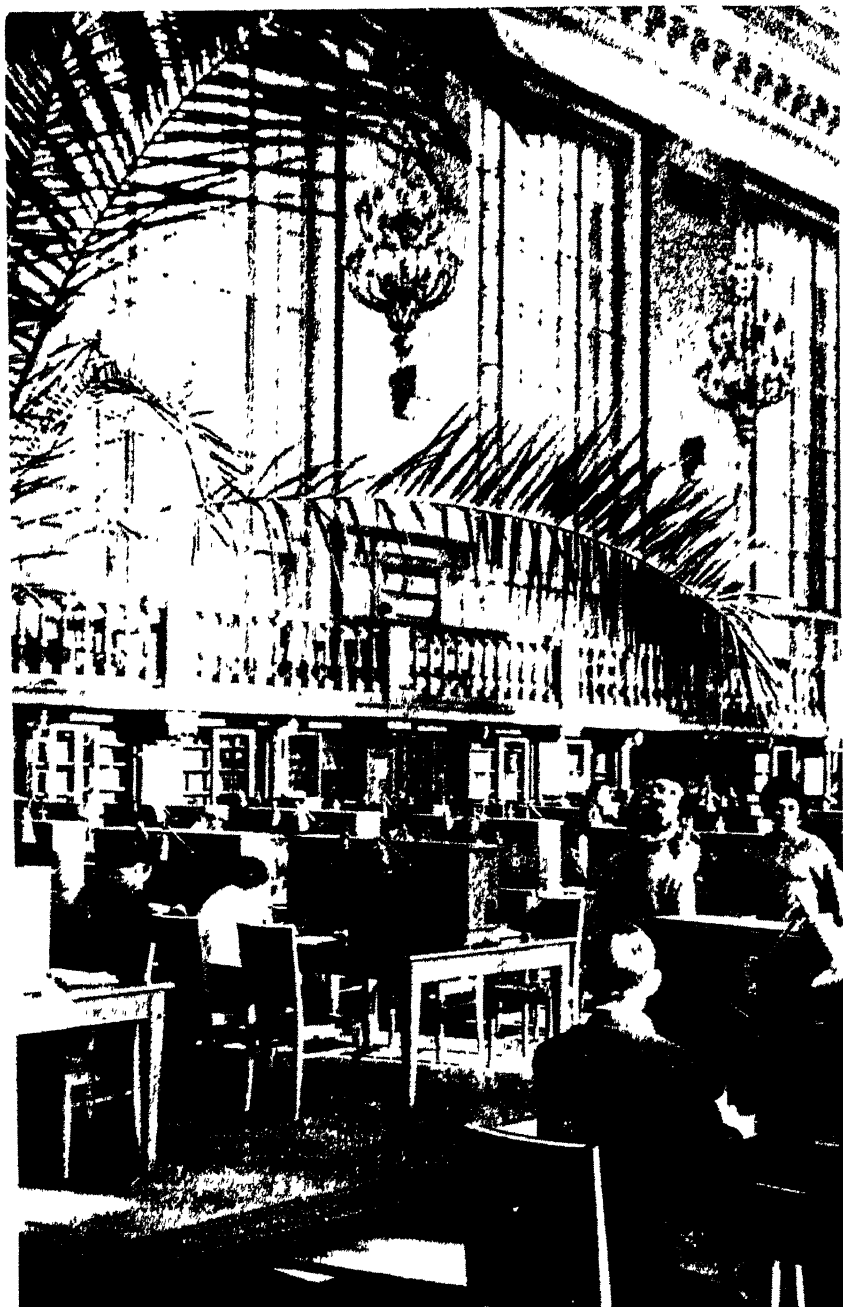


Soviet Libraries and Librarianship



Sovfoto

A reading room of the Lenin Library, Moscow, the national library of the Soviet Union

BY

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SOVIET LIBRARIES AND LIBRARIANSHIP

Report of the Visit of the Delegation of U.S. Librarians
to the Soviet Union, May-June, 1961,
under the U.S.-Soviet Cultural Exchange Agreement

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Foreword

The members of the United States delegation of librarians who visited the USSR in 1961 wish to record their appreciation to all who helped make possible this opportunity to study and observe Soviet library service.

Our appreciation goes especially to the governments of the two countries for the inclusion of librarians in the cultural exchange agreement of November 21, 1959; to the Ford and Rockefeller foundations for financial assistance; to the American Library Association's International Relations Committee for help and guidance; and to our respective institutions for granting leaves of absence. Mr. Melville J. Ruggles, Vice-President of the Council on Library Resources, Inc., by virtue of his long familiarity with Soviet library affairs performed many invaluable services in both the negotiation and the planning of the visit.

We remain deeply appreciative of the hospitality and assistance extended by our Soviet hosts. These individuals are too numerous to mention here, but to all of them—from Madame Furtseva, the USSR Minister of Culture, and Mr. Gavrilov, Chief of Main Library Inspection, to Mr. Orlov, Executive Secretary of the Lenin Library, and Mrs. Lure, the principal interpreter from Intourist (the latter two being our helpful companions and guides throughout over 5,500 miles and visits to more than forty libraries and institutions in the Soviet Union)—we are truly grateful.

We are very grateful to the staff of the Library of Congress, and particularly to members of the Slavic and Central European Division, for providing many facts, figures, and citations. We are also indebted to Mr. Boris I. Gorokhoff of Washington, D.C., who provided invaluable advice and assistance.

Finally, we acknowledge a particular debt to the two members of our delegation who are the authors of this Report. Their task was not an easy one. Each member of the delegation provided the authors with notes, and from these, plus their own exceptional knowledge of the subjects covered, the authors have produced a Report which we believe will stand as an important contribution to an understanding of Soviet library service and librarianship.

David H. Clift
Executive Director
American Library Association

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Introduction

A delegation of four Soviet librarians visited the United States between April 5 and May 2, 1961; an American delegation of seven librarians reciprocated by touring the Soviet Union between May 7 and June 5. The success of this exchange was due in large part to a long period of careful planning and persistent negotiation by the International Relations Committee of the American Library Association.

An agreement between the United States and the Soviet Union on exchanges in the cultural, technical, and educational fields had been signed on January 27, 1958. Librarians had not been included. Aware that a new agreement would be negotiated in 1959, the International Relations Committee, after receiving informal encouragement from the U.S. Department of State, wrote a proposal which began as follows:

Because of the fundamental role of libraries in education, research and the general culture of the United States and the USSR, librarians of both countries could make an important contribution to the objectives of the Lacy-Zaroubin Agreement on Exchanges, namely to "contribute significantly to the betterment of relations between the two countries, thereby contributing to a lessening of international tension." A visit of American librarians to the Soviet Union would also serve specific purposes, set forth below, which are related to American national interests.

American libraries, public and academic, with their traditions of free communication of ideas, are among the best

mirrors of American democratic principles. It would seem particularly appropriate that a mission of American librarians follow such delegations as the educators and the state governors, teachers and practitioners respectively of American Democracy, and that as experts on books they should reinforce the message conveyed by the book collections displayed at the American exhibition in Moscow in the summer of 1959.

Therefore the International Relations Committee of the American Library Association (with the approval of the Executive Board of the Association) proposes the sending of a delegation of American librarians on a study mission to the USSR. It is proposed that thirteen American librarians visit libraries and bibliographical centers in the Soviet Union in the Spring of 1960, and that negotiations looking to a reciprocal visit of Soviet librarians be initiated immediately thereafter.

The proposed visits, it was believed, would not only "contribute to general cultural interchange and to international understanding" but would also have a number of specific values, including:

- Strengthening research activities, including particularly scientific research
- Strengthening Slavic studies
- Strengthening library support of formal education
- Investigating informal education through public libraries
- Promoting exchange of information

Meanwhile, in anticipation of this exchange, the Council on Library Resources had commissioned two studies¹ in a first effort to assemble the facts about Soviet libraries and publishing as revealed by the published literature.

The International Relations Committee advanced its proposal during the summer of 1959. Funds to implement it were obtained from the Rockefeller Foundation and the Ford Foundation. Meanwhile, the new exchange agreement between the United States and the Soviet Union was negotiated and was signed in Moscow on November 21, 1959. Section V (8) (e) of this agreement read:

One delegation from each side comprising five to seven persons for up to four weeks between the American Library

¹Paul L. Horecky, *Libraries and Bibliographic Centers in the Soviet Union* ("Indiana University Publications. Slavic and East European Series" [Bloomington, Ind., 1959]), cited hereafter as Horecky, and Boris I. Gorkhoff, *Publishing in the U.S.S.R.* ("Indiana University Publications. Slavic and East European Series" [Bloomington, Ind., 1959]).

Association and appropriate Soviet organizations to visit libraries and bibliographic centers and also to study (1) bibliographic techniques, compilation of indices and other techniques of library documentation and analogous processes; (2) methods of reproduction and dissemination including the operation of specialized libraries and centers; and (3) methods of training library personnel, establishment of the level and organization of technical processes.

Section IX stated that both sides recognized the desirability of continuing the exchange of literature in the methodology of teaching, educational films, and other pedagogical materials. Section X (2) stated that

both parties agree to assist in the exchange of books, magazines, and other publications devoted to scientific, cultural, technical and educational subjects by encouraging exchanges of books and publications between universities and public libraries of the US and USSR.

The satisfaction of the International Relations Committee with this agreement was tempered by the scaling-down of its provisions. The Committee had proposed missions of thirteen people representing a wide range of library interests; accepted were five to seven, who would necessarily be less representative. It had proposed tours of six weeks; four were agreed upon. The missions would necessarily cover fewer libraries in less depth than had been desired. Even the purposes of the exchange had been narrowed. Nevertheless, the program was approved, and planning for the actuality began with enthusiasm.

After many uncertainties and delays, the exchange was finally scheduled for the spring of 1961 instead of 1960. The International Relations Committee was directed by the Executive Board of the American Library Association to select the American delegation and to assume general responsibility for itineraries and other arrangements. The corresponding responsibilities in the Soviet Union were assumed by the Main Library Inspection Office of the Ministry of Culture of the USSR. All negotiations were conducted through official diplomatic channels—the U.S. Department of State and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the USSR.

VISIT OF THE SOVIET DELEGATION TO THE UNITED STATES

The Soviet delegation, which finally consisted of four people, landed at Idlewild, New York, the afternoon of April 5 and flew on to

Washington, D.C. the same day Head of the delegation was Nikandr Fedorovich Gavrilov, Chief of Main Library Inspection of the Ministry of Culture of the USSR. Mr. Gavrilov has been a member of the Ministry of Culture since 1956 and served as Deputy Chief of the Main Administration of Cultural and Educational Institutions from 1956 to 1959. He is a member of the Editorial Board of the journal *Bibliotekar (The Librarian)* and has written numerous articles on library work. As Chief of Main Library Inspection, he bears general responsibility for all the public and state libraries of the Soviet Union (i.e., the library network of the Ministry of Culture) and for the coordination and improvement of all types of libraries and library work regardless of jurisdiction (e.g., the library networks of all ministries, such as the Ministry of Higher Education, and other highly placed administrative organs, such as the Academy of Sciences) throughout the country.

The other members of the delegation were Irina Iurevna Bagrova, Viktor Mikhailovich Barashenkov, and Lev Ivanovich Vladimirov. Mrs. Bagrova is the Head of the Reference and Bibliographic Department of the Lenin Library² at Moscow. She is a Doctor of Law and has published various articles on legal theory as well as on library services. Mr. Barashenkov is the Director of the Saltykov-Shchedrin Library at Leningrad. He is a historian and has published numerous works on the activities and collections of the Saltykov-Shchedrin Library. Mr. Vladimirov is Director of the Scientific (i.e., research or scholarly) Library and of the Department of Library Science and Bibliography of Vilnius State University in Lithuania. He is the author of more than fifty articles and other publications in the fields of library science, the history of the book, the organization of library services in Lithuania, and the training of librarians.

During the next four weeks this distinguished delegation visited Washington, D.C. and its environs, Chicago, Cleveland, Cambridge and Boston, and New York City. A visit to the Far West of the United States, proposed by their hosts, was canceled by the delegation. The group saw a wide variety of libraries—public, county, school, special, and university—and a number of other places of professional interest, such as the U.S. Office of Education; Documentation, Inc.; the headquarters of the American Library Association and the Special Libraries Association; two library schools; the H. W. Wilson Co.; and the U.S. Book Exchange. Into this busy schedule were crowded numerous sightseeing and shopping trips, concerts, museums, theaters, and social affairs.

²Throughout this report, for the sake of convenience, the short popular names of libraries visited are given. The fuller, formal titles are given in the "List of Institutions and Principal Officials Visited" in the Appendix.

Traveling with the delegation were two interpreters, both supplied by the U.S. Department of State, and Raynard C. Swank, the Director of the International Relations Office of the American Library Association, who served as general host and manager. The programs in each city were arranged by local coordinators: Rutherford D. Rogers, Chief Assistant Librarian, Library of Congress, at Washington; Alphonse F. Trezza, Executive Secretary, Library Administration Division of the American Library Association, at Chicago; Barbara Denison, Coordinator of Special Activities, School of Library Science, Western Reserve University, at Cleveland; Douglas Bryant, Associate Director of the Harvard College Library, at Boston and Cambridge; and Dean Jack Dalton and Ray Trautman, School of Library Service, Columbia University, at New York City.

The American hosts felt that the Soviet visit to the United States was a success. This belief was confirmed by several cordial personal letters sent by the Soviet guests after their return to the USSR. The Library Council of the Ministry of Culture of the USSR sent a greeting, by telegram, to the 80th Annual Conference of the American Library Association. The message included the following sentences:

The mutual exchange of delegations of librarians from the USSR and the USA showed that direct contact and businesslike relations among the representatives of the libraries of our countries have a positive meaning. We hope that similar contacts in connection with library service to the population will be continued.

Similar sentiments were expressed in a report on their trip by Mr. Gavrilov and Mrs. Bagrova.³ They ended their article with this paragraph:

In concluding we would like to stress that the personal contacts established between American and Soviet librarians as a result of the exchange of delegations can and should continue to develop. Despite the difference in their initial ideological positions, librarians of the USA and the USSR have many professional interests in common, and further mutual study of the work of each other's libraries can be of value to both sides.

American librarians share and endorse these observations and statements of intent. They took the initiative in implementing them

³ Nikandr Gavrilov and Irina Bagrova, "A Soviet View of American Libraries," *Library Journal*, 87:703-7 (February 15, 1962); see also *Sovetskaya Bibliografua*, No. 2, 1962, p.125-31.

in the form of a proposal by the Special Libraries Association to the U.S. Department of State that an exchange of United States and Soviet special librarians be included in the third cultural exchange agreement between the governments of the United States and the USSR, which was scheduled for discussion in the latter part of 1961. Negotiations for the agreement were concluded early in 1962. Among the proposals put forward by the U.S. Department of State was the Special Libraries Association's suggested exchange. Soviet authorities rejected it.

Despite this setback, American library officials remain firm in their belief that there is, and will be in the indefinite future, a desire on both sides to understand each other and to find common, fruitful grounds for the development of personal and professional mutual interests in the years ahead.

VISIT OF THE UNITED STATES DELEGATION TO THE SOVIET UNION

The American delegation to the Soviet Union gathered at Copenhagen, Denmark, on May 6, 1961, then flew as a group to Moscow on May 7. Three members of the group had flown on May 2 from New York to Copenhagen on the same plane that carried the Soviet delegates on their return trip home.

Seven librarians comprised the American delegation, as selected by the ALA International Relations Committee. Head of the delegation was David H. Clift, Executive Director of the American Library Association. The other members were Mrs. Frances Lander Spain, President of the American Library Association and Coordinator of Children's Services of the New York Public Library; Miss Sallie J. Farrell, Field Representative of the Louisiana State Library; Emerson Greenaway, Director of the Free Library of Philadelphia and Past-President of the American Library Association; Rutherford D. Rogers, Chief Assistant Librarian, Library of Congress; Melville J. Ruggles, Vice-President of the Council on Library Resources; and Raynard C. Swank, Director of the ALA International Relations Office and Director (on leave) of the Stanford University Libraries.

On arriving in Moscow, the American delegation first met with Mr. Gavrilov and his staff to plan the itinerary. Mr. Gavrilov, as Chief of Main Library Inspection of the Ministry of Culture of the USSR and as Head of the Soviet Delegation to the United States, sponsored the American group. The group also enjoyed early conferences with Madame Furtseva, the USSR Minister of Culture, and with U.S. Ambassador Llewellyn Thompson.

The delegation visited over forty libraries, book chambers,

and other places of professional interest and traveled some 5,500 miles within the Soviet Union. The itinerary included Moscow (with side trips to Tula and Kalinin), Leningrad (with a side trip to Rozhdestveno), Kiev (with a side trip to Borispol), Tashkent, and Samarkand. On the return to Moscow, a summing-up meeting was held on June 1 at the Ministry of Culture. Mr. Gavrilov reported on the Soviet delegation's impressions of United States libraries, and Mr. Clift responded with his delegation's impressions of Soviet libraries. By agreement, both dealt frankly with adverse as well as with favorable impressions.

Five members of the American delegation left Moscow on June 2. Mr. Ruggles and Mr. Swank stayed in Moscow until June 5 to visit additional libraries and bibliographic centers, including the Department of Mechanization and Automation of Information Work of the Institute of Scientific Information of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR and the Fundamental Library of Social Sciences, also of the Academy of Sciences.

Traveling with the delegation throughout its journeys were Mr. Vladimir Orlov, Executive Secretary of the Lenin Library, and Mrs. Liudmila Lure, the principal guide and interpreter supplied by Intourist. Though Mr. Orlov's function was host, not interpreter, his fine command of the English language resulted in his playing a dual role as host-interpreter, and his skill in each role won the delegation's lasting appreciation. Mrs. Lure was not only a highly competent interpreter; as a singer she enlivened the journey with her renditions of Russian song. Intourist, which handled all travel arrangements for the delegation, supplied additional interpreters, as needed, in the various cities visited.

REPORTS OF THE VISIT

First reports of the American mission to the Soviet Union were published by Rutherford Rogers, "Yes, Ivan Reads," in the *ALA Bulletin*, July-August 1961, and presented orally by the members of the delegation to a general session of the ALA Conference in Cleveland, July 12, 1961.⁴ The present report is a full account on behalf of the delegation as a whole.

This report is necessarily limited and inadequate. Inevitably it contains errors. One month in the Soviet Union makes nobody

⁴The text of these reports appears in the American Library Association, *80th Annual Conference Proceedings*, Cleveland, Ohio, July 9-15, 1961 (Chicago: American Library Association, 1961), p.3-15. An account of the American visit from the Soviet viewpoint, written by Mr. Vladimir Orlov, was published in the Soviet English-language magazine *USSR*, September, 1961, p.58-59.

an expert. Only one of the group, Mr. Ruggles, had had previous experience in Russia and could speak the Russian language. Many of the library visits were hurried; there was never enough time to explore fully and carefully the wide range of problems with which the mission was concerned. Not infrequently the difficulties of interpretation led to errors in the delegates' notes. On the other hand, it has been possible to compare the notes kept by more than one delegate during most visits, since few visits were made by only one person. It has also been possible to fill in some gaps and to correct some inconsistencies by reference to published sources.

The most significant limitation of this report arises, as might be expected, from the wide differences in social and political systems which separate the United States and the USSR. Over and over again the United States delegation was aware, and sensed that its Soviet hosts were also aware, of failures to see a given phenomenon as Soviet citizens saw it. The American hosts of the Soviet delegation to the United States similarly felt that a problem of understanding confronted their guests. On the level of human interrelationships—including, above all, the sharing of a common sense of humor and the love of books, music, and the ballet—there was complete rapport. There was also little difficulty in understanding each other's techniques of librarianship. The major problems of understanding, to repeat, were social and political. During the trip, in thinking about it, and in the writing of this report, the delegates have been well aware of these problems but have made every effort to consider them as unavoidable constants, which should not be brought into the equations involved in this report. In writing this report the delegates tried to put politics and social values aside. In what is reported there is every attempt made to be forthright, fair, and reasonable.

A great deal of information about Soviet librarianship is available in published sources. While the delegation was familiar with many of these sources before it undertook the mission, this particular report is based largely on the notes taken by the delegates in the field. Readers who wish also to review the data that are available in previously published sources may consult the bibliography compiled by Paul L. Horecky that is given in the Appendix.

PEOPLE AND PLACES SEEN

The most warm and gratifying memory of this mission will always be the cordial manner in which the delegation was received in every city and village—from Moscow to Borispol to Samarkand. The Soviet hosts were most kind, considerate, and helpful. A special pleasure was the reunion with three members of the Soviet

delegation to the United States on their home territory: Mr. Gavrilov, Mrs. Bagrova, and Mr. Barashenkov. The fourth member, Mr. Vladimirov, had already returned to Lithuania. Also especially appreciated was the patience of Mr. Orlov, whose everyday task was to accompany the group and to assure that all went well. All did go well, indeed, although Mr. Orlov at times was subjected to more of the idiosyncrasies of American individualism than could reasonably be expected of any foreign host. The delegation will long remember many officials and professional people all along the route—librarians, Book Collectors, and heads of local departments of culture—many of whom it is hoped will be able in due course to visit the United States.

The delegation was enabled to visit every library it specifically asked to visit, confining its requests to those areas not forbidden by Soviet authorities to travel by foreigners, and the Soviets arranged many additional visits within the usual unrestricted areas. In all the cities within these areas the delegates were free to come and go as they pleased. Insofar as conventional libraries were concerned, they did not detect any Soviet desire to conceal or dissemble. Indeed, the delegation was impressed both by their hosts' pride in the achievements of their libraries and by their candor in not only admitting but even pointing out their shortcomings.

By unspoken agreement this exchange—both ways—was conducted at a strictly professional level. Political discussions were tacitly agreed to be taboo, and there were very few lapses. Both delegations regarded their missions as being primarily the improvement of libraries in the service of their respective societies and the strengthening of mutually beneficial relations between the libraries and the librarians of the two countries. This professional dedication did not, however, interfere with sightseeing and the enjoyment of many of the cultural riches of the Soviet Union.

A traditional glory of the Soviet Union is, of course, the theater. At Moscow, Leningrad, Kiev, and Tashkent, the delegation several times experienced the perfection and enchantment of Soviet ballet and opera. There were also the circus and the puppet shows at Moscow, both superb. Especially memorable were the visits to the Hermitage Museum and the Peterhof at Leningrad; the Tretyakov Museum and the Kremlin at Moscow; the St. Sophia church at Kiev; and Tolstoi's home and wooded grave at Iasnaia Poliana, near Tula. Samarkand, Tamerlane's capital, was a story in itself—a fascinating picture book of several thousands of years of Asian history, and one of the most ancient still-existing cities of the world.

Chapter I

Organization and Planning of Soviet Library Service

ROLE OF LIBRARIES

Libraries of all types are considered by Soviet authorities to be important and vital institutions in the life and development of the Soviet system of government. Libraries in the USSR have been given special attention by Communist leaders from Lenin to Khrushchev. From time to time this concern has been expressed in pronouncements and decrees of the Communist Party and the Soviet Government. The most recent of these was promulgated in September, 1959.¹

All important aspects of library service in the Soviet Union were profoundly affected by this latest decree, and much of what the American delegation observed was a reflection of the energy and diligence with which Soviet library authorities were attempting to implement this latest official edict. It is important to bear this fact in mind as important background for what is reported below, for what the delegation saw may not be, indeed probably is not, normal. Library affairs in the USSR were, at the time of the delegation's visit, in a period of transition. The delegation saw neither what has been going on for the past forty years nor what will go on in the future, since many activities will no doubt be changed as experience demonstrates a need for modification here and there.

¹It was entitled "Methods and Means of Improving Library Services in the Country" and was first published in the October, 1959, issue of *Partinaiia Zhizn* (*Party Life*), the organ of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the USSR. It was published in English in the *ALA Bulletin*, 54:379-81 (May, 1960), tr. by Victor Fedial.

Soviet authorities are quite explicit about the reason for this interest in libraries. They consider them to be valuable instruments for guiding and controlling the Soviet people toward the building of a society envisaged by Soviet leaders. *Pravda's* editorial² on the above-mentioned decree called for "more complete utilization of book collections to instill communist qualities in every Soviet citizen. Libraries must become genuine centers for the mass propagation of political, educational, scientific-technical, agricultural, and professional knowledge." Libraries, the editorial went on to say, should be "fulcrums for the Party organizations in the communist education of workers. . . . The principal task of libraries is to propagandize the historic decisions of the 21st Party Congress, to explain the policy and decisions of the Communist Party and the Soviet Government and to lend the Party and State an active hand in education and in raising the communist awareness and the cultural and technical level of the Soviet people."

An official of the Administration of Culture of an oblast in an agricultural region defined the objective of libraries in simpler terms, in response to questioning by the American delegation. He said that the principal goals were to raise the cultural level of the population, to teach collective farmers how better to raise and harvest crops, to increase peoples' understanding of current political problems, and to help people build their personal libraries. However stated, the basic goal of library service is clearly to lead people to be more loyal and more productive Soviet citizens.

COORDINATION AND CONTROL

To achieve their objectives, Soviet authorities have at their disposal several "networks" of libraries for which they have devised special methods of coordination and control. The types of libraries in these networks correspond rather closely to those in the United States: public (including children's), university, research, special, and school. Trade-union libraries constitute the only important category of libraries in the USSR which hardly exist in the United States. This difference is due, in large part, to the fact that "trade unions" in the United States and the USSR are two entirely different types of institutions, which bear little or no resemblance to each other.

These categories of libraries are under the jurisdiction of various Soviet organizations so diverse as to be almost bewildering. Most of the general libraries—from such huge research libraries

²*Pravda*, October 2, 1959, entitled "To the People with the Wealth of Libraries."

as the Lenin Library in Moscow and the Saltykov-Shchedrin Library in Leningrad down to the smallest district or village public libraries, called "mass libraries" in Soviet terminology—are administratively and financially controlled by the Ministry of Culture (of the USSR or of each of the fifteen republics) or its equivalent and subordinate organs in the oblasts, cities, and towns (where they are known as "Administrations [Upravleniia] of Culture" rather than "Ministries"). University and school libraries are for the most part under the Ministries of Education of the republics, though many semiprofessional technical schools (*tekhnikums*), trade, and vocational schools are controlled by the ministries responsible for the various industries involved. Several research libraries are directly under the administration of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR or of the Academies of Sciences in the republics. Many special libraries are responsible to various Ministries. And so on.

There was some evidence, the delegation thought, that this vertical compartmentalization of Soviet library networks resulted in inefficiencies and duplication of effort. While the 1959 Decree did not specifically criticize this administrative structure, it seems that several of the specific deficiencies in library service severely castigated in this Decree may have been caused in part by it. Between 1955 and 1959 an attempt was made to coordinate the activities of the various library networks through a Central Council of Library Guidance, under the Main Administration of Cultural and Educational Establishments of the USSR Ministry of Culture. The delegation of American librarians does not know how successful it was. Nor is it clear in the 1959 Decree whether this Council in particular fell under criticism. The Decree stated: "According to the Central Committee, all these shortcomings were the result of poor guidance and supervision from the Ministry of Culture of the USSR, the Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialized Education, and Ministries of Culture and Education of the fifteen union republics, trade unions, and other groups."

Main Library Inspection Office

In any event the 1959 Decree took a momentous step in seeking to achieve coordination. It stipulated that systematic scrutiny of all libraries in the entire country would be assigned to the newly created Main Library Inspection Office of the Ministry of Culture of the USSR. Mr. Gavrilov, who headed the Soviet delegation of librarians during its visit in the United States and who was host to the American delegation in the USSR, is Chief of this Office.

Mr. Gavrilov's task is obviously an onerous one. To supervise the large number of libraries under the direct control of the Ministry of Culture, to which his office is attached, is alone a major

responsibility. But to extend his supervision into the library networks of other ministries and government bodies must considerably complicate his work. The American delegation had intended to find out more about Mr. Gavrilov's responsibilities and activities, but the pressure of time toward the end of its visit prevented the discussion with Mr. Gavrilov which the delegation had hoped to arrange. It was learned that the Library Inspectors have responsibility but little authority. Their function is to bring matters requiring remedial or new action to the attention of appropriate authorities.

The delegation learned in more detail about the work of library inspectors at a lower level. Since the Soviet administrative system usually consists of a hierarchy of agencies, each one at a lower level resembling those at the top in structure and function, it is probable that the Main Library Inspection for the USSR is similar to the one in a major city whose work was described to the delegation. Each city has an Administration of Cultural Inspection which reports to the Executive Committee of the city Soviet. This body is staffed by inspectors for various institutions and activities such as museums, libraries, theaters, parks, clubs, preservation of historical monuments, and the like. The duties of each inspector are to study the objectives of the system under his or her purview and to oversee the achievement of these objectives. The inspector helps organizations to prepare their annual and longer-term plans and maintains constant scrutiny of the manner and role of plan fulfillment. If an organization fails to fulfill its plan, the inspector reviews the plan, searches for unforeseen circumstances which prevented fulfillment, and helps to solve problems that are found to be responsible for failure. Library inspectors do not hire or fire directors of libraries; this is done by higher political authorities. Library directors, however, hire and fire their own staff.

Parenthetically, the delegation learned that each city Soviet has a separate Department of Cultural Buildings, which controls both new buildings and reconstruction of old buildings. Library buildings are included in the program of this Department. It was not possible to pursue this question further, but the delegation wondered about the extent to which joint planning, if any, was exercised between officials of this Department and librarians. It appeared possible that the poor architectural planning referred to in Chapter VI, "Buildings and Equipment," of this report might be due to lack of coordination between building authorities and library experts.

Supervisory Councils

Coordination of the activities of various library networks is also carried out by an entirely different series of supervisory

councils. At the top of the pyramid is the Council on Library Affairs of the Ministry of Culture of the USSR. Its Chairman, Professor Viktor Ivanovich Shunkov, is also Director of the Fundamental Library of Social Sciences of the Academy of Sciences. There are two Deputy Chairmen: Mr. Gavrilov (also Chief of Main Library Inspection of the Ministry of Culture of the USSR as noted above) and L. P. Kondakov (also Director of the Lenin Library in Moscow). This Council, like its counterparts at republic and oblast levels (where they are called Interagency Library Councils), is a so-called "social institution," a term which requires some digression by way of definition.

There is a great deal of volunteer work in the Soviet Union performed outside working hours and without compensation. Persons engaged in such work—and practically every citizen is apparently involved—are called members of *aktivs* and their contribution is termed "social work." As will be noted later in this report (see page 71), every library in the USSR has a library council whose members consist of such volunteer workers. The above-mentioned Council on Library Affairs of the Ministry of Culture has about 70 members, none of them paid for their services on the Council and all of them representing different types of institutions, ministries, or libraries. The Council deliberately recruits the highest-possible ranking figures who have direct or indirect concern for library work. It has a Bureau whose members are also volunteer, but with a full-time paid secretary. The Council meets three times a year in plenary session, in which not only the approximately 70 members convene, but up to about 130 additional persons, most of them volunteers. The meetings, therefore, involve about 200 people. Between sessions of the Plenum the Bureau is active, largely in drawing up plans and agenda for the next meeting.

One of the principal goals of the Council has been to coordinate library work in various agencies throughout the country. Chairman Shunkov said that the Council found many areas where there was overlapping of library service and many where there were gaps. These findings were apparently translated into remedial action by the 1959 Decree, which ordered the merger of small libraries of different agencies located in the same vicinity and of libraries located within the same agency or establishment. At the same time it stated that in localities where the size of the population did not warrant an independent library, branches or book-exchange points of nearby libraries ought to be set up. Professor Shunkov told the delegation that one of the major questions now under study by the Council is the location of libraries throughout the country. Other problems currently under the Council's scrutiny are library training, library equipment, and procedures for weeding collections.

The Council is a powerful body, even though its functions are only advisory. It has direct access to the Council of Ministers of the USSR, the highest executive organ in the Soviet Union. Though the delegation was not told so, it probably has equal access to the higher organs of the Communist Party. The Council not only makes suggestions to appropriate governmental agencies; it even drafts decrees for them to adopt. The Council both initiates recommendations to the Council of Ministers and is asked for advice by this body.

The Interagency Library Councils which exist at every level of government, from oblast up to republic, were said to play the same kind of role as the central Council. The Interagency Library Council of the Ukrainian Republic has 100 members. Its Chairman, Mr. Grigorii Mikhailovich Shabli, is a Deputy Minister of Culture of the Ukraine. His Council meets once every three months and concerns itself with all problems affecting all libraries regardless of type or size.

The entire complex system of library networks is pervaded by a spirit of guidance from higher to lower agencies in the hierarchy. All-Union³ library organizations and large libraries assist similar institutions on a republic level, those on a republic level assist those on oblast level, and so on. The three most common fields of guidance are in technical processes, selected bibliographies, and centralized cataloging. The virtues and faults in these services will be discussed in other parts of this report. At this point it is sufficient to comment that this system of guidance results in a remarkable uniformity in all libraries of the USSR visited by the delegation—and probably in the thousands of others not visited—with respect to content of collections, methods of cataloging, forms of technical services, and types of service to readers.

ANNUAL PLANNING

A basic characteristic of the Soviet system of government is planning. Libraries are as much affected by this method of governance as any other Soviet institution. Each library must draw up an annual plan, have it approved by the appropriate authorities, and perform during the following year in accordance with the approved plan. The approved plan is, in fact, a directive. A library's success or failure is measured by its fulfillment of its plan, and the more the plan is overfulfilled, the more successful the library is deemed to be. The planning is extraordinarily detailed. For

³ Designation commonly used to indicate that the authority or scope of activity of an organization extends to all the republics of the Soviet Union.

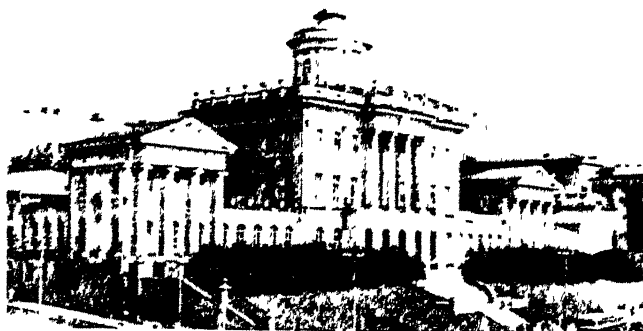
example, the annual plan for the Lenin Library includes such activities as: the number of registered readers, the number of visitors in the reading rooms, the number of books loaned, the number of reference questions answered, the number of acquisitions, the number of books sent and received on international book exchange, the number of microfilm frames produced, and the number of books bound.

The budget of the library is determined in accordance with its plan. Each department of the Lenin Library, for example, draws up a plan. Upon approval of the Director, all departmental plans are translated by the Library's accountants into ruble figures. These are then negotiated with the Ministry of Culture. As described to the delegation, the procedure appeared to be similar to budget hearings of United States federal agencies before Congress. When approved by the Ministry, both the plan and the budget have the force of law, binding the library to fulfill its plan within the limits of the allotted budget.

Fulfillment of a plan seemed to be measured primarily, if not exclusively, by quantitative data. Soviet library officials, from highest to lowest rank, were found to be very statistically minded. Each one encountered had figures on the tip of his or her tongue regarding every minute activity of his or her library or library system. When asked about qualitative measurements of performance, the Soviet hosts were much more vague in their answers.

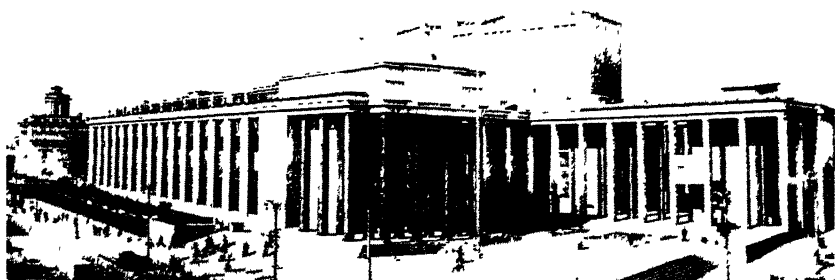
The apparent need of Soviet librarians to justify their performance by keeping elaborate statistical records of library procedures, probably forced upon them by the requirements of the planning system, is reminiscent of United States library procedures in the early twentieth century. Soviet librarians keep records which United States librarians discarded decades ago on the grounds that the statistics were relatively worthless and that the time the librarians spent in keeping them should be devoted instead to serving readers. In the Appendix are shown reproductions of standard forms used by Soviet libraries for drawing up their annual plans and for keeping a daily record of their activities, also a table from the *Annual Report* of the Lenin Library showing comparison of plan and achievement. These exhibits illustrate the scale and thoroughness of statistical records kept by Soviet libraries.

The stress on statistical accountability constitutes one of several levers for conformity and uniformity in Soviet library practice. Soviet library authorities appear to be uncomfortable when diversity or individuality crops up in their library system. In an article entitled "Norms in Library Work," published in a Soviet library journal in 1958, the author expresses concern over the fact that Soviet librarians had "paid markedly less attention to problems of



Lenin Library

The old building of the Lenin Library, Moscow. The library, based on the collection of a Russian nobleman, was first opened to the public in 1862.



Lenin Library

The new building of the Lenin Library, Moscow. At the left is the old building and, in the background, the 19-tiered stack built on the eve of World War II. The three buildings are connected by underground passageways.

standardization of their work," remarking that this behavior "has given rise to great difficulties in planning and supervising the work of libraries."⁴

While the September, 1959, Decree did not complain explicitly about any such lack of uniformity, the implementation of its specific provisions, as the delegation observed it in action, has created an extraordinary uniformity in library procedures and services. The standardization was so marked, even in the three otherwise diversified republics which the delegation visited (the RSFSR, the Ukraine, and Uzbekistan), that halfway through their visit the delegation felt

⁴M. Rabei, "O Normakh Biblioteknoi Raboty [Norms in Library Work]," *Bibliotekar*, No. 10, 1958, p.43.

that each library they entered was not a new library but one revisited.

Possibly, therefore, Soviet library officials have solved the problems arising from numerous separate and vertically compartmentalized library networks by establishing a uniformity among them all. Though such uniformity would be impossible and probably intolerable in the United States, American librarians would be well advised not to criticize the Soviet method of library administration in terms of American standards, goals, and values. Given the goals set for Soviet libraries by the ruling authorities, the methods chosen are perhaps the most effective that can be devised.

Chapter II

Bibliography, Indexing, and Abstracting

It is in the field of bibliographical control of published materials that the intensive efforts of Soviet librarianship display the most impressive achievements. Mr. Gavrilov wrote¹ that in the decade between 1946 and 1956 there were published in the USSR 7,644 titles of bibliographical publications, numbering more than 32 million copies. Even these figures do not convey an adequate notion of the thoroughness of coverage of Soviet bibliographical work. One must actually see the massive quantities of bibliographical works produced by Soviet libraries, and being used by them, to be able to grasp the meaning of such figures.

The Soviet bibliographies produced in such quantity have a tremendous range in both scope and subject matter. They are so numerous and varied, indeed, that the American delegates were able only to sense their number and variety. Having seen only a small sample of them, the delegation cannot describe or evaluate them. To do so from published information would fill many multiples of the space occupied by this entire report. The annual *Bibliography of Soviet Bibliographies* (*Bibliografiia Sovetskoi Bibliografii*) for the year 1959 alone lists 8,538 bibliographies published during that year.²

¹N. F. Gavrilov, "The Great Tasks of Soviet Libraries," *Biblioteka SSSR; Opyt Raboty*, No. 13, 1960, p.36.

²The apparent discrepancy between this figure and the one cited by Gavrilov above is probably explained by the fact that the *Bibliography of Soviet Bibliographies* lists every conceivable list of books and articles containing thirty or more titles, including bibliographies appended to periodical articles, publishers' catalogs, library accession lists, and the like. Gavrilov was probably referring to separately published bibliographical

Soviet bibliographical output ranges in coverage from the comprehensive national bibliography, *Knizhnaia Letopis*, to the thousands of recommended reading lists of a dozen or so titles each, on special subjects which guide the reading of the common laborer or the peasant. Soviet bibliographies are produced by many institutions. Libraries of all types are, in the aggregate, the principal source. There are some institutions, however, which specialize in the compilation of bibliographies and are not engaged in the other services usually associated with libraries.

CENTRALIZED BIBLIOGRAPHICAL SERVICES

All-Union Book Chamber

Foremost among such institutions is the All-Union Book Chamber (Vsesoiuznaia Knizhnaia Palata), a unique organization which has been functioning for more than fifty years. Its activities have been recounted in several English-language publications.³ As will be noted later in this report its activities extend far beyond compilation of bibliographies. Even its role in the latter field is so wide as to permit only brief summary here.

The All-Union Book Chamber of the USSR compiles and publishes a weekly bibliography of all books published in the USSR in all languages. This national bibliography is entitled *Book Chronicles (Knizhnaia Letopis)*. In general, all monographs of five or more pages are listed. Full descriptive cataloging entries are given, plus indication of size of edition and price. Each republic of the USSR (plus some autonomous republics) also has a Book Chamber which similarly lists all books published in the republic (except for the RSFSR, which is covered by the All-Union Book Chamber). Thus the Soviet Union has more than a national bibliography; it has a supranational bibliography, plus seventeen national bibliographies. The titles listed in the central *Knizhnaia Letopis* in 1960 numbered 78,407. The All-Union bibliography heavily duplicates the titles appearing in the bibliographies of the republics. The delegation was told by the Director of the Book Chamber of the

works of distinct character. The comprehensiveness of coverage of the *Bibliography of Soviet Bibliographies* is in itself an example of the thoroughness with which bibliographical compilations are undertaken in the USSR.

³Some of the principal English-language sources are: Horecky, *passim*; N. Kukharkov, "Copyright Deposit and Related Services: The All-Union Book Chamber of the U.S.S.R.," *UNESCO Bulletin for Libraries*, 11:2-4 (January, 1957); M. J. Ruggles, "The All-Union Book Chamber of the U.S.S.R.," *Libri*, 9, No. 2:117-24 (1959); T. J. Whitby, "National Bibliography in the U.S.S.R.," *Library Quarterly*, 23:16-22 (January, 1953).

Uzbek Republic that 80 per cent of the entries in the *Uzbek Knizhnaya Letopis* appear in the All-Union *Knizhnaya Letopis*, and that this 80 per cent includes *all* scientific and scholarly publications appearing in Uzbekistan.

Currently, *Knizhnaya Letopis* is indexed quarterly: to authors, editors, and illustrators; to subjects; and to geographical areas. There is also an annual index listing monographic series and the separate titles within them.

The comprehensiveness of coverage of this Soviet national bibliography was seriously jeopardized at the turn of the year 1961. The first issue of *Knizhnaya Letopis* for 1961 (which contained 792 titles by contrast with the 1,354 titles in the previous issue) announced that certain categories of publications were, and thenceforth would be, excluded from it and would be listed separately. It soon became evident that this separate listing was not intended to be seen by anyone outside the USSR. The issues made available abroad thereafter showed the consequences: whereas the average number of items per weekly issue for the year 1960 was 1,507, the first six issues for 1961 contained an average of 865 titles.

The delegation inquired about this new development and heard various explanations, not all of them consistent. Piecing the accounts together led to the conclusion that an order had been passed down from "on top" (from which level the delegates did not know), instructing the All-Union Book Chamber to exclude from *Knizhnaya Letopis* all publications which "would not be of interest to foreign libraries and scholars." When the delegates challenged the ability of Soviet bibliographers to judge what United States libraries and scholars would be interested in, they were told that the Russians had reconsidered the types of materials to be excluded and that listing of "transaction type publications" would be resumed. Publications of this nature reappeared in the *Knizhnaya Letopis* beginning with No. 20 of 1961. In issue No. 26, *Knizhnaya Letopis* published a separate list of 373 items of this type which had been omitted from issues Nos. 1-19.

Still missing from the national bibliography, however, are what are described as "unpriced" and other publications "for the use of Soviet institutions only." These include printed or processed information issued by or for various departments and agencies of the Soviet government, industrial instructions, standards and manuals, advertising materials, and abstracts of dissertations. All such publications, formerly listed in *Knizhnaya Letopis*, are apparently still under bibliographical control, for it was said that they are listed in a supplement to *Knizhnaya Letopis* which, however, is solely for the use of libraries and other institutions of the USSR and not made available to anyone outside the country.

After leaving the USSR, the delegation learned more about the supplement from persons who had engaged in research in the Soviet Union and had seen the publication. Its title is *Dopolnitelnyi Vypusk "Knizhnoi Letopisi"* (Supplementary Issue of "Book Chronicles"). It is issued monthly (the first number covering January, 1961) and is indexed quarterly by separately published indexes. The edition for 1961 was 3,400 copies. On the upper right-hand corner of each copy are printed the following words: "Only for libraries and institutions of the Soviet Union." The average number of items listed each month was approximately 3,200 until the above-mentioned change in policy in June, 1961. Subsequent issues have varied in content from somewhat over 2,000 items to nearly 3,000 items. Approximately 30,000 publications, or well over one third of the total Soviet output,⁴ were therefore listed only in this restricted bibliography in 1961.

If Soviet bibliographical authorities had found the listing of total national output to be too burdensome or unwieldy and had therefore decided to adopt a more selective policy for entries in the national bibliography, the problem would have met with sympathy and understanding from librarians outside the USSR. The *British National Bibliography* has, for example, recently announced that coverage will be less thorough than in the past. Recommendations have also been made by Western European and United States bibliographers that national bibliographies be divided into various categories, one being "books and pamphlets published but not on sale."⁵ The listing of the vast output of United States presses is so chaotic that nothing resembling a United States national bibliography exists. The division of a bibliographically admirable national bibliography into two parts, one available outside the country, the other hidden from the rest of the world, is, however, so foreign to the traditions of Western Europe and America that it is incomprehensible. It occurred to the delegation that this restrictive policy might represent only a transitory phase in the handling of what is becoming, after all, a Gargantuan volume of printed material.⁶

⁴ In 1961, 45,235 publications were listed in the regular edition of *Knizhnaya Letopis*. In 1960, it will be recalled, the complete (and unrestricted) *Knizhnaya Letopis* listed 78,407 titles.

⁵ Margaret S. Bryant, "Bibliographies, Abstracts and Indexes," in *The State of the Library Art*, ed. by Ralph R. Shaw, Vol. 2, Pt. 2 (New Brunswick, N.J.: Graduate School of Library Service, Rutgers University, 1960), p. 7.

⁶ Indeed, the changes in method of publishing the Soviet national bibliography which the delegation observed during the year 1961 might have been such a transitional phase toward separate but public listing. For as this report goes to press, it has been learned that beginning with the first issue for 1962 the supplement to *Knizhnaya Letopis* has been freely available, on sub-

Restriction of listing of unpriced publications, however, is at least consistent with—if not the consequence of—a decree of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of February 11, 1959,⁷ which ordered sharp curtailment in production of unpriced literature. The Party pointed out that in 1957 alone the USSR produced 27,000 unpriced titles in a total edition of 129 million copies, representing 7,000 tons of paper and costing about 450 million rubles.⁸ The decree also ordered tighter control over official and internal publications to prevent disclosure of information considered to be secret.

Some types of materials are usually excluded from both the overt and the covert editions of *Knuzhnaia Letopis*: publications of less than five pages,⁹ publications issued in less than 100 copies (except for some political, scientific, or literary works), and various materials considered to be ephemeral.

Besides the national bibliography the All-Union Book Chamber produces numerous serial bibliographies, many special bibliographies in monograph form, many books about bibliography, and catalogs. It also issues printed cards for books published in the Soviet Union. The seventeen other republic and autonomous-republic Book Chambers produce similar bibliographies and catalog cards.

Principal among the publications issued by the All-Union Book Chamber (in addition to the weekly national bibliography) are:

Chronicles of Journal Articles (Letopis Zhurnalnykh Statei)—a complete index, published weekly, of articles, documents, and literary pieces appearing in the principal Soviet periodicals

Chronicles of Newspaper Articles (Letopis Gazetnykh Statei)—a monthly list of articles in the principal newspapers

Chronicles of Reviews (Letopis Retsenzii)—a quarterly listing of book reviews and essays of criticism which have been published in periodicals. Each issue has an alphabetical index of authors of the titles reviewed and of the reviewers.

scription, to United States (and presumably all other) libraries. The supplement no longer bears the inscription restricting its use to Soviet institutions. Apparently only one category of publication is now missing from both the regular and the supplementary editions—abstracts of doctoral dissertations. The lists of dissertations published by the Lenin Library seem now to be the principal source of information on that type of material.

⁷*Spravochnik Partinogo Rabotnika*, 2:540-42 (1959).

⁸The cost is expressed here in terms of the ruble before its recent revaluation. According to the present official Soviet rate the dollar equivalent would be approximately \$45 million. See footnote 3, p. 38, on the value of the ruble.

⁹A few categories of materials, such as official standards, are listed even though some items may consist of less than five pages.

Chronicles of Musical Literature (Letopis Muzykalnoi Literatury)—a quarterly registration of musical scores with numerous indexes, including one of titles and beginning words of vocal compositions

Chronicles of Pictorial Art (Letopis Izobrazitel'nogo Iskusstva)—a quarterly registration of all printed reproductions of pictorial nature in the USSR: portraits, posters, picture postcards, decorative patterns, pictorial newspapers, visual aids, drawings, and the like, with indexes of artists, biographical sketches, and authors of accompanying texts

The Literature and Art of Peoples of the USSR and of Foreign Countries (Literatura i Iskusstvo Narodov SSSR i Zarubezhnykh Stran)—a semimonthly bulletin, published jointly with the Foreign Literature Library, listing items of two categories of artistic productions: translations into Russian of belletristic writings and works of pictorial art of the minority nationalities of the USSR and of foreign countries. It is divided into two parts, one on "Literature," the other on "Art." It lists those works of non-Russian writers or artists which are published in Russian either separately or in periodicals and newspapers. It has several indexes, such as of authors, translators, illustrators.

Soviet Bibliography (Sovetskaia Bibliografiia)—a scholarly journal on problems of bibliography and of librarianship issued six times a year

Unesco Bulletin for Libraries (Bulletin IUNESKO dlia Bibliotek)—a Russian translation of the same bulletin that is published in English, French, and Spanish

New Books (Novye Knigi)—a weekly list of selected books published during the previous week, and an announcement of forthcoming publications. It is published jointly with Mezhdunarodnaia Kniga (International Book Export Company).

The Book Annual of the USSR (Ezhegodnik Knigi SSSR)—a two-volume selective listing of books in all languages of the USSR. It appears to be a cumulative list of most, or possibly all, of the commercially available (i.e., "priced") books listed in the weekly (overt) *Knuzhnaia Letopis*. The two volumes represent a division of subject matter: one listing books on the social sciences and the humanities, textbooks, and children's literature; the other listing books on the natural sciences, technology, agriculture, medicine, and the like.

Chronicles of Periodicals of the USSR (Letopis Periodicheskikh Izdanii SSSR)—a complete list of serials published in the

USSR during the preceding five years. This five-year cumulation started in 1955, covering 1950-54 and picking up where nine volumes covering 1917-49 stopped. The title would be more accurate if the word "serials" were substituted for the word "periodicals." The publication lists serials, including newspapers, published in all languages of the USSR. The five-year cumulations are supplemented annually by a two-volume (actually two-part) publication bearing the same title (*Letopis Periodicheskikh Izdanii SSSR*). One of these annual supplements contains titles of all periodicals and newspapers which are new, have changed in name, or have been discontinued as of April 1 of the year; successive issues of this part cumulate. The other lists irregularly published serials, such as transactions and official materials issued serially.

Cartographic Chronicles (Kartograficheskaya Letopis)—an annual list of maps and atlases published in the USSR

Bibliography of Soviet Bibliographies (Bibliografiya Sovetskoi Bibliografii)—as noted on page 19, this list, published annually, contains all bibliographical compilations published during the year, whether separately or in periodicals or newspapers. It also lists publications about bibliography.

The Press of the USSR (Pechat SSSR)—a comprehensive statistical compilation about everything, from books to musical scores, published in the USSR. Its numerous statistical tables present data about numerous aspects of Soviet publishing, such as place of publication, subject matter, languages, and translations.

In addition to these regularly published bibliographical works, the All-Union Book Chamber has published (and each year it publishes an increasing number) separate bibliographies and books about bibliography and librarianship. These bibliographies on special topics are comprehensive and of high quality, and the works on bibliography maintain a scholarly standard of excellence. They are far too numerous to list here.

When the delegates visited the Director of the Book Chamber, they told him they were familiar with the wide scope of activities of his organization as represented in the list above, and suggested that he save time by describing only those projects of the Book Chamber which are new—i.e., begun within the previous year or two. His recital of recent achievements and initiated projects was breathtaking.

One of the major innovations will be cumulations of the national

bibliography, *Knizhnaia Letopis*, for five-year periods. These, in turn, will be continuations of the massive *Union Catalog* which has been in preparation since 1947.

This Union Catalog will begin with Russian incunabula and will end with 1957, at which time the *Knizhnaia Letopis* five-year cumulations (though not indicating library locations) will pick up the coverage. Four institutions are collaborating in this 1707-1957 catalog: The All-Union Book Chamber, the Lenin Library, the Saltykov-Shchedrin Library, and the Library of the Academy of Sciences. The catalog will be completed in ten years, will fill about sixty volumes with about 1,300,000 titles, and will be a classed book catalog. It will be possible either to subscribe to the entire set or to obtain selected volumes by subject.

A new addition to the Book Chamber's already extensive list of periodical bibliographies will be the 1961 issue of *Annual of Journal Articles* (*Ezhegodnik Zhurnalnykh Statei*). It will be an index to articles in both irregular serials and periodicals, and will be published in eight or nine volumes annually, each volume devoted to a subject. Its coverage is to begin with January 1, 1961.

The Book Chamber is now working on the tenth volume of *The Periodical Press of the USSR* (*Periodicheskaiia Pechat SSSR*), covering the years 1955 through 1960, and is beginning to compile a catalog of newspapers in all languages of the USSR for the period 1917 through 1949. The Director of the Book Chamber told the delegation that the publication would include 14 to 15 million issues of newspapers and then observed that the *Chronicles of Newspaper Articles* (*Letopis Gazetnykh Statei*)—which is an index, not a catalog—covers only Russian-language newspapers and only thirty-seven of these.

The Book Chamber has recently published the fourth and final volume of Ivan F. Masanov's monumental *Dictionary of Pseudonyms of Russian Writers, Scholars and Public Figures*. These volumes were prepared for the press by Masanov's son, Iurii Ivanovich. The latter (Iurii Ivanovich Masanov) is now completing a book which will be published by the Book Chamber under a title tentatively established as *In the World of Literary Hoaxes, Pseudonyms and Anonyms*.

In addition to its published bibliographies, the Book Chamber maintains on its premises twenty-five or more card catalogs, containing over a billion entries. These are necessary as a basis for the Chamber's widespread bibliographical work and are therefore primarily for internal use. Libraries, however, and others with a "need to know" may make use of these rich catalogs. They are too numerous to describe here, but they are briefly listed in the Appendix. The reader interested in more details can find them in the

Book Chamber's own 26-page publication entitled *Katalogi Vsesoiuznoi Knizhnoi Palaty (Spravka)*, published in Moscow in 1958.

All the above work of the Book Chamber, and much more, has been carried on since the middle of World War II under the most adverse physical circumstances. The Book Chamber's building in the center of Moscow suffered a direct hit from a German bomb and was completely destroyed. Since then the organization has been scattered in seven widely separated buildings, all of them very crowded and inefficient architecturally. (The huge archive of Soviet printed works noted in the following chapter is stored in an ancient church building.) Within about three years, however, the Book Chamber will have a new complex of buildings where all its activities can be brought together.

Institute of Scientific Information of the Academy of Sciences

Another bibliographical center outside the system of libraries is the Institute of Scientific Information of the Academy of Sciences (VINITI).¹⁰ Created in 1952 for the purpose of providing a centralized service to scientists and engineers, its many series of *Abstract Journals (Referativnye Zhurnaly)* and leaflets, also in several series, under the title *Express Information (Ekspress-Informatsiia)*

¹⁰ There is a certain amount of confusion regarding the name of this institution. First created in 1952, it was then entitled Institute of Scientific Information. In 1956 it was superseded and absorbed (without, however, losing its name) by the All-Union Institute of Scientific and Technical Information (Vsesoiuznyi Institut Nauchnoi i Tekhnicheskoi Informatsii), whence the initials VINITI by which it is known both within the USSR and abroad. When established, VINITI embraced under its administrative wings the Institute of Scientific Information, the Institute of Technical and Economic Information, and, as time passed, other units also. Soviet authorities, however, both orally and in writing, seem to use "Institute of Scientific Information" and "VINITI" (usually abbreviated) indiscriminately to indicate one and the same organization. Consequently this report is similarly imprecise in designating it.

Until the spring of 1961, VINITI was jointly subordinated to the Academy of Sciences of the USSR and to the State Technological Committee of the Council of Ministers of the USSR (Gosudarstvennyi Nauchno-Tekhnicheskii Komitet Soveta Ministrov SSSR). In April, 1961, the latter was replaced as coadministrator of VINITI by the new State Committee of the Council of Ministers for the Coordination of Scientific Research. Accordingly the full title of this organization is now: All-Union Institute of Scientific and Technical Information of the Academy of Sciences and of the State Committee of the Council of Ministers for the Coordination of Scientific Research (Vsesoiuznyi Institut Nauchnoi i Tekhnicheskoi Informatsii Akademii Nauk SSSR i Gosudarstvennogo Komiteta Soveta Ministrov SSSR po Koordinatsii Nauchno-Issledovatel'skikh Rabot).

soon began to attract world attention. A large full-time staff, supplemented by the part-time paid services of a far larger number of individual scientists and engineers, has been producing several series of periodicals containing abstracts of articles and other publications in all countries of the world. The *Express Information* series contain translations and lengthy abstracts from foreign journals, representing highly selective accounts of the latest achievements in science and engineering in all fields.

By the end of 1959¹¹ the Institute was operating on a budget of more than 5 million dollars annually (not including publication and distribution costs) and had a staff of 2,200, plus more than 20,000 abstractors and editors working part time throughout the USSR. The editors at the Institute estimated that over 700,000 abstracts of scientific articles would be published in 1959 in the thirteen different series of abstract journals then being published.¹² These abstracts would be taken from 12,000 journals (plus 3,000 special Soviet publications) published in ninety-five countries and appearing in sixty-five different languages. By extrapolation it was expected that from 1959 through 1965 about 5 million articles would be abstracted.

Attracted to this Institute—as dozens of other foreign visitors have been in the past several years—by the publicity it has received,¹³ several members of the delegation visited the Vice-Director, Stepan Maksimovich Lisichkin and several of his colleagues. They were told that the *Abstract Journals (Referativnye Zhurnaly)* were now issued in sixteen series, and *Express Information (Ekspress-Informatsia)* in fifty-two series. By next year the Institute expects to add two or three more series of abstract journals and several more to *Express Information*. The series of abstract journals has increased, in recent years, much more in size of each series than in the number of series. The officials of the Institute are now devoting special attention to subject indexes, to expediting the publication of the abstract journals, to reducing their price, and to improving their quality.

The Institute has been able to cut down the time lag between publication of original journals and publication of abstracts by virtue of much more efficient printing facilities. Whereas it used to have to depend on the services of a printing plant serving

¹¹ The data in this paragraph are taken from D. B. Baker and M. Hoseh, "Soviet Science Information Services" in *Chemical and Engineering News*, 38, No. 2:70-73 (January 11, 1960).

¹² At the beginning of 1962 the number of series had grown to forty.

¹³ Much had been published about VINITI. One of the more interesting accounts by visitors is S. R. Ranganathan's article in *Annals of Library Science*, 7:53-64 (June, 1960).

several enterprises, it was given its own printing plant in 1960 and has consequently been able to cut down the delay. It is aiming, now, for a delay of no longer than five to five and a half months between article and abstract publication. When the information machine upon which its laboratory is working¹⁴ becomes available, the Institute expects to cut the margin to three or three and a half months.

One of the most significant innovations, in the opinion of the Vice-Director, has been the introduction of separately published sections from each series of abstract journals. The full-size issues had become too bulky and too expensive for subscribers. Now scientists and engineers, specializing in narrow aspects of the various fields covered by the abstract journals, may be better and more economically served. The full-size issues are concurrently published, for they are useful in larger libraries.

Other Sources of Bibliographical Data

The industry, meticulousness, and vast achievement of the bibliographical work of the Institute of Scientific Information have justifiably impressed many foreign visitors. Concentrated attention on its activities, however, seems to have diverted attention from numerous other rich sources of bibliographical data in the fields of science and technology which are provided by many other Soviet institutions, including libraries.

As the first group of United States librarians to visit the USSR under the official exchange agreement, the delegates deliberately kept their interests general. For this reason they saw little, first-hand, of the bibliographical services extended to Soviet science and industry. They saw only a small sample at the single special library they visited—the Library of Shoe Factory No. 4 in Kiev. There they were shown the bibliographical material actually used by the 280-300 engineers of the factory (30-40 of whom use the library daily, on the average). While these engineers use the several series of abstract journals and *Express Information* of the Institute of Scientific Information which the library receives, they are provided with a larger volume of bibliographical material from entirely different sources. The principal (though not the only) other sources were the Central Bureau of Technical Information of the Kiev Economic Council (Sovnarkhoz), the Central Institute of Technological¹⁵ Information of Light Industry of the State Technological Committee¹⁶ of

¹⁴See p.93 ff.

¹⁵In general, throughout this text, the Russian adjective *nauchno-tekhnicheskii* is rendered into English as "technological."

¹⁶In a reorganization which occurred on April 9, 1961, this Committee was dissolved and replaced by a State Committee for the Coordination of Scientific Research.

the Council of Ministers of the USSR, and the library of the huge Skorokhod shoe factory in Leningrad.

Merely by way of example of the many bibliographical services provided by these institutions, the special library of the Leningrad shoe factory produces lists of translations from foreign publications relating to the shoe industry (the one seen by the delegation was about seventy pages in length). If the Kiev shoe factory (and undoubtedly any other library of a shoe factory elsewhere in the USSR) wants an article on this list, it can receive, on request, an abstract or even a full translation, free of charge. The librarian of the shoe factory, when asked to compare the services of the Institute of Scientific Information with these other sources, said that the former provided the "most concentrated and most interesting data" but that the advantage of the information received from other sources was that it came sooner.

There are numerous Russian-language books and articles describing the truly remarkable Soviet bibliographical services to science and industry, but unfortunately few English-language sources. Foreign visitors seem largely to confine their attention to the work of the Institute of Scientific Information. More perspective begins to be cast upon this scene, however, by the increasing number of translations of Soviet writings on the subject. Probably the most comprehensive of these is a book entitled *Technical Information in the U.S.S.R.* by Aram S. Melik-Shakhnazarov, translated by Boris I. Gorokhoff.¹⁷

An article in the *Soviet Economic Gazette (Ekonomicheskaya Gazeta)* of June 24, 1960, excerpted here, may convey an idea of the scope of bibliographical service provided to Soviet scientific institutions and factories:

At the head of our service of scientific and technical information is the All-Union Institute of Scientific and Technical Information (abbreviated to VINITI) established several years ago. This scientific establishment, the only one of its kind, is under the jurisdiction of the USSR Academy of Sciences and the State Technological Committee of the USSR Council of Ministers.¹⁸

There are two special institutes under the jurisdiction of the State Technological Committee of the RSFSR—the State Institute of Technological Information (GOSNITI) and the

¹⁷ Aram S. Melik-Shakhnazarov, *Technical Information in the U.S.S.R.*; tr. by Boris I. Gorokhoff ("Library Monograph," No. 3 [Cambridge, Mass.: Massachusetts Institute of Technology Libraries, 1961]). 122p.

¹⁸ As noted on p.29, footnote 16, this Committee was replaced in early April, 1961, by the State Committee for the Coordination of Scientific Research.

recently established Central Institute of Technical and Economic Information.

In addition, there are seven central branch institutes of technical information subordinate to the State Technological Committee of the USSR Council of Ministers, and two Central Bureaus of Technical Information which essentially fulfill the function of institutes. Throughout the country there is a total of thirty branch organs of technical information.

Nine special institutes of technical information are in operation in the union republics. In addition to this, in eighty-seven economic councils of the Soviet Union there are so-called TsBTI—Central Bureaus of Technical Information. And beyond them there is a mass of lower organizations—Bureaus of Technical Information of [separate factories or other] enterprises, [each of them designated] by the abbreviation BTI.

The remainder of this article, incidentally, contained a realistic account of how these services functioned and a severe criticism of their deficiencies. The *Abstract Journals* of the Institute of Scientific Information were criticized for being unwieldy in size and too expensive (faults which, as noted on page 29, the Institute is trying to correct by publishing separate sections). *Express Information* was also said to be too expensive. Both the *Abstracts* and the *Express Information* were criticized because of the small editions in which they were published (the average number of copies for each being 2,000).

Both series were castigated for delay in reporting current scientific and technical literature, particularly from abroad. The *Abstracts* were said to be inadequate in coverage: they lacked series for several branches of industry, and the existing series did not cover foreign literature thoroughly enough. The system of distribution of the Institute's publications was found to be inefficient and needlessly costly. As for the entire network of institutions providing information services, the author saw a danger of duplication: "no one can guarantee that several information organs will not be working on the same topics."

Just as in the Soviet library world in general, so also in the field of Soviet special libraries' service to science and industry, the situation was in flux at the time of the delegation's visit. Less than a month before the delegation's arrival in the USSR, a decree had been issued "On Measures for Improving the Coordination of Scientific Research..." This decree stipulated that "... a number of institutes and other scientific institutions and also branches of the USSR Academy of Sciences are to be transferred from the USSR Academy of Sciences to the jurisdiction of the state committees

of the USSR Council of Ministers, ministries and departments, and the Russian Republic [RSFSR] Council of Ministers."¹⁹

The delegation was not able to assess the meaning or consequences of this decree. It had been in effect for too short a period by the time they left the USSR; they saw very little of Soviet special libraries; and their hosts seemed to be primarily, or exclusively, interested in public (mass) libraries or in general research libraries.

It was the general impression of the delegation that much more money and effort were invested in the bibliographical control of the natural sciences and technology than in the bibliographical control of the social sciences and the humanities. A very high-ranking Soviet library official was asked about this impression. He confirmed it, saying, "The era of Voltaire is gone; the day of Einstein is here."

UNION CATALOGS

In the bibliographical control of general literature, covering all fields, union catalogs which play an important role in Soviet library work should be mentioned. The most comprehensive of them all—the *Union Catalog* of Russian and Soviet books from 1707 through 1957—has already been noted (see page 26).

Numerous other union catalogs—some in card form, others in book form—were brought to the attention of the delegation. One interesting procedure seemed to be common throughout the USSR: just like the card catalog of individual libraries, union lists seem to handle Soviet and foreign literature separately. One obvious advantage of this practice is that it eliminates the problem of inter-filing items in Cyrillic and other alphabets. (Parenthetically, the delegation did not hear a word about any problems of transliteration.)

One of the more impressive union catalogs of foreign literature seen was the series of printed catalogs of new acquisitions issued in six series each year by the Foreign Literature Library. Over 300 Soviet libraries contribute to this catalog. Each series covers a distinct field: e.g., science and technology, the social sciences, belles-letters. The same Library publishes an annual union catalog of foreign periodicals received by more than thirty Soviet libraries.

The delegation also saw a very valuable union catalog issued by the Fundamental Library of Social Sciences of the Academy of Sciences in Moscow. It, too, is a book catalog in several series,

¹⁹ The decree was dated April 12, 1961. Its text, in translation, appears in *Current Digest of the Soviet Press*, 13, No. 15:14 (May 10, 1961).

each produced photographically by the shingling of cards from the contributing libraries. This catalog, issued monthly in twenty-one series covering various aspects of the field of social sciences, lists current acquisitions of five major libraries in all languages of the world, including the languages of the USSR. (This union list is an exception to the rule of separating materials published in different alphabets.) Both monographic titles and analytics of periodicals are included. The other four contributing libraries—in addition to the Fundamental Library of Social Sciences—are: the Foreign Literature Library, the Lenin Library, the Library of the Institute of Peoples of Asia of the Academy of Sciences, and the Library of the Institute of World Economics and International Relations of the Academy of Sciences.

Among the numerous card catalogs of the Lenin Library there is a Union Catalog of Foreign Books in the Libraries of the USSR, which contained 451,000 entries in 1959.

The union catalogs that the delegation happened to see constituted, no doubt, only a small sample of the union catalogs that exist in the USSR. Thomas J. Whitby reports, for example, that "union catalogs of a retrospective nature have been compiled by the respective book chambers in a number of the union republics . . ." ²⁰ The delegation saw none of these, nor several others mentioned by Whitby and others in the library literature about the Soviet library system. What was seen of union catalogs, however, convinced the group that they were of major importance in Soviet bibliographical procedures and that their compilers were performing a meticulous and thorough job.

BIBLIOGRAPHIES OF INDIVIDUAL LIBRARIES

Though the delegates only skimmed the surface in their observation of centralized extralibrary bibliographical services and of their close cousins, union catalogs, and though they found them impressive, they believe that of the totality of Soviet bibliographical output the bibliographies produced by individual libraries, taken together, outweigh the centralized output.

Forty-one bibliographies were issued in 1959 by the Lenin Library as recommended reading lists. In addition, the Lenin Library published in the same year 15 bibliographies in the research-informational category. Together they totaled nearly 11,500 pages and varied in the number of copies published between 700 and 78,760. The total number of copies published was 194,810; the

²⁰ Thomas J. Whitby, "Libraries and Bibliographical Projects in the Communist Bloc," *Library Quarterly*, 28:290 (October, 1958).

average for the fifteen bibliographies was nearly 13,000 copies. The bibliography published in only 700 copies was a list of candidates' and doctoral dissertations received by the Lenin Library and the State Central Research Medical Library for the first six months of 1958 (212 pages). The item published in 78,760 copies was one of a series of bulletins of new acquisitions by the Lenin Library of foreign books. This particular series, consisting of thirty-six issues for the year (about 3,850 pages in all), covered: physics, mathematics, chemistry, geography, technology, and catalogs of products of foreign firms.²¹

In addition to these published bibliographies, the Lenin Library produced 99 unpublished ones on request—from within the library and from outside.²²

Between 1949 and 1956 the Foreign Literature Library published more than 550 bibliographies totaling about 80,000 pages.

Between 1923 and 1959 the Fundamental Library of Social Sciences of the Academy of Sciences published 193 bibliographical works.²³ This bare enumeration, however, cannot do justice to the volume and richness of the scholarly bibliographical work of this library. The figure should be multiplied many times, for several of the individual items represent multivolume works; and only a scrutiny of sample pages from these bibliographies can provide a feeling for the bibliographical skill invested in their compilation. The policy of selection of materials—particularly of works published outside the USSR—apparent in these bibliographies accords, of course, with standard Soviet practice in dealing with the social sciences.

The above-indicated bibliographical output of a few large libraries is a highly superficial review for even these libraries. A similar scale of bibliographical production seemed to prevail in the other large libraries visited. Though the large libraries visited represented only a small sample of the many large libraries of the USSR, the delegation concluded—from printed sources—that the bibliographical output witnessed was representative of all large libraries in the USSR.

The bibliographies produced by Soviet libraries range in type and purpose from service to the scholar, through service to libraries of smaller size, to service directly to readers. Bibliographies produced by the larger libraries seem to be in two distinct

²¹ All the information in this paragraph is taken from the 1959 *Annual Report of the Lenin Library*, p.48-49.

²² *Ibid.*, p.14.

²³ Akademiia Nauk, SSSR, *Fundamentalnaya Biblioteka Obshchestvennykh Nauk (iz opyta raboty za 40 let): Sbornik Statei* (Moscow: Akad. Nauk, 1960), p.288-311.



David H. Clift

The Palace of Culture in Borispol, a village near Kiev, which contains the library for this rural community

categories: research informational bibliographies (*nauchno-informatsionnaya bibliografiya*) and recommended reading lists (*rekomentatsionnaya bibliografiya*). The manner in which the bibliographies in these two categories serve the three types of users appears to be mixed. Obviously the scholarly bibliography will be equally useful to an individual scholar and to those libraries serving many scholars. Similarly the more popular bibliography or reading list will be useful to both the man in the street and the small public libraries serving the man in the street. The more popular types of bibliographies produced by Soviet libraries will be discussed in more detail in Chapter IV, "Readers' Services."

Iurii Ivanovich Masanov, son of the great bibliographer Ivan F. Masanov who died in 1945, is the author of a recently published important work entitled *The Theory and Practice of Bibliography: A Bibliography, 1917-1958*. The list contains 5,477 items. The delegation was impressed by the bibliographical work done by and for a type of scholar almost unknown and certainly unrecognized in the United States—the bibliographer. Under the Soviet regime the European bibliographical scholar continues to enjoy prestige and respect.

The objectives of general and scholarly bibliographies in the USSR and the United States are not easy to compare and evaluate.

Any controversy over the objectives and utility of Soviet general and scholarly bibliographies would involve not American librarians versus Soviet librarians, but one school of American librarians versus another. All would readily agree that Soviet librarians have approached the goal of total bibliographical control more closely than have librarians of any other nation. The basic questions are: Is it worth the cost? Would the tremendous human effort required be better invested in other areas of service to scholars? Do Soviet librarians produce too much for too few? Is there too much duplication in coverage? Do Soviet scholars really need the voluminous bibliographical resources made available to them? If each scholar perused all the bibliographical materials made available to him, would he have any time left for creative work?

As the first group of American librarians to visit the USSR as an official mission, the delegation does not presume to offer answers to these questions. It hopes that those who follow may find some answers.

Chapter III

Library Collections

ACQUISITIONS

The means used by Soviet libraries to build their collections are similar to those used by libraries in the United States. They employ legal deposit, purchase (from distributor or from bookstores), gifts, and exchanges (both domestic and foreign).

There are, however, wide differences between the two countries in the emphasis placed on each method and in the manner in which each method is conducted. In general, all aspects of book distribution in the USSR are under state control, as are libraries, and therefore the requirements and needs—in theory, at least—can be coordinated. This means, for example, that legal deposit plays a major role in the larger libraries, whereas gifts are almost insignificant.

Legal Deposit

The system whereby certain Soviet libraries are by law supplied with the output of the presses of the country is an old tradition, predating the Communist period in Russia by more than 130 years. The liberality of the law has fluctuated,¹ and the present trend is

¹For example, a decree of September 29, 1948, cited by Horecky, p.7, 171-72, designated forty Soviet libraries as recipients of legal deposit copies which Horecky stated: "...reduced substantially the number of deposit copies ... and it abolished altogether the free legal deposit copies for province and district libraries which, up till then, automatically received publications printed within their own administrative units." In 1958, seventy-six

toward reducing the number of copies given free to depository libraries. Nevertheless, by United States standards, the distribution is generous.

The delegates were told that currently twelve copies of everything printed in the Soviet Union were distributed, free of charge, to the following institutions:

- 1 copy—All-Union Book Chamber in Moscow
- 3 copies—Lenin Library in Moscow
- 2 copies—Saltykov-Shchedrin Library in Leningrad
- 1 copy—Kremlin Governmental Library
- 1 copy—Moscow University Library²
- 1 copy—sent either to the Institute of Marxism-Leninism or to the State Technological Library, depending on subject matter
- 3 copies—one each to the libraries of the Academy of Sciences in Leningrad, Moscow, and Novosibirsk

It is not obligatory for all these libraries to retain all copies; some can select what they need and relinquish the rest for other libraries which might want them.

The clearinghouse, central distributor, and watchdog over this system of legal deposits is the All-Union Book Chamber of the USSR in Moscow. It receives the publications from the printers and mails them out to recipients. In 1958 it was spending about 600,000 (old-value) rubles³ annually for mere packaging and shipping costs for

Soviet libraries received legal deposit copies (see M. J. Ruggles, "The All-Union Book Chamber of the U.S.S.R.," *Libri*, 9, No. 2:118-19 [1959]).

² This copy is first sent to the International Book Export Company (Mezhdunarodnaia Kniga) for scrutiny (apparently for the purpose of estimating the sale abroad of each title) and then turned over, within ten days, to the University.

³ The ruble (containing 100 kopeks) was revalued on January 1, 1961, one new ruble being assigned the same value as 10 old rubles. Simultaneously all prices and payments in the USSR (including wages) were reduced to one-tenth of their previous levels. The ruble has no foreign market value, being officially unavailable abroad. Its ratio to foreign currencies is arbitrarily established by the Soviet government: by Soviet fiat one ruble now equals \$1.11 (or \$1 equals 90 kopeks).

It is extremely difficult to compare Soviet prices with those of other countries, for prices on most Soviet goods, services, and rentals are set by the government for purposes of controlling and guiding the economy and society toward prevailing objectives. For example, low prices are placed on children's apparel to encourage large families; high prices are assigned to textiles and footwear for adults to build state capital (called "social savings") and to restrict demand for the products of the overstrained consumer goods industries; low prices are set on books to promote indoctrination and education; and so on.

Citizens newly affected by radical currency revaluations tend to think

legal deposit copies. Each month it receives from the more than 300 publishing houses in the USSR lists of every item published. These are cross-checked against titles received. The Chamber attempts to retrieve missing items and to send them out to the deposit libraries.

The trend toward restricting the number of legal deposit libraries—combined as it seems to be with allowing libraries relative freedom of choice in book selection and, most importantly, with making the entire Soviet publishing output available to all libraries through Library Book Collectors (see page 40)—appears to be a step forward. The policy retains the generosity which a totally state-controlled economy can afford, while at the same time it no longer forces many libraries to retain and process large numbers of titles which they do not need.

The legal deposit system represents an alleviation for the budgets of the largest libraries, whose funds for acquisition of materials published in the USSR are quite low. The Director of the Lenin Library impressed this fact on the delegates when they asked him to discuss his budget in detail. Of the 4 million (new) rubles allotted the Lenin Library for its entire annual operation, about 1 million rubles are spent for acquisitions and for research. But most of the book funds from this figure are spent for older Russian and Soviet titles and for foreign works.

The Director stated that most of the currently published Soviet materials are received free and that these are worth "several million rubles." The Director must have had in mind the value of these deposit copies accumulated over a number of years. The Lenin Library's *Annual Report* for 1959 (page 22) reports acquisition of 292,000 items of currently published Soviet materials. From this total 212,000 copies were received on legal deposit and 80,000 were purchased. If the average retail price of such items is approximately half a (new) ruble, the annual value of legal deposit copies received by the Lenin Library would be something over 300,000 (new) rubles for three copies of new titles (100,000 rubles for one copy of new titles).

Priced Deposit

An extension and a variation of the free legal deposit system has been in effect since 1931, which, theoretically at least, make the entire Soviet book output available to all major Soviet libraries.

and speak in terms of old rates. The delegation consequently found itself uncertain whether a cited ruble figure was ten times or one tenth the value stated; soon it asked in each case whether "new" or "old" ruble was meant. It is believed that the decimal point is correctly placed in all ruble figures given in this report.

The system is designed to provide these libraries with a priority in accessibility to newly published works. It differs from the free legal deposit system in two important respects. The distributing agent is not the All-Union Book Chamber but the Central Distributing Agency for Research Libraries (Tsentralnyi Kollektor Nauchnykh Bibliotek).⁴ And the publications are not delivered free, but are sold — either at book-trade discount or at cost if the item bears no indicated price.

The regulation controlling this system requires all printers to deliver not only the 12 above-mentioned copies to the All-Union Book Chamber but another 180 copies⁵ to the Central Distributing Agency. Many of these copies (somewhat less than one half) are automatically delivered to major libraries which pay for the entire set. The remainder, apparently, are available for selective purchase by other libraries.

This system seems to be a mixed blessing. It insures that no large library will be deprived of Soviet publications by virtue of being placed in the competitive market for books obtained from bookstores (where most titles sell out very quickly). But the libraries designated as automatic recipients face the hazard of having to accept and to pay for titles which they do not need.⁶ Also there are recurrent complaints that the printing establishments fall short on their deliveries, thereby vitiating the intent of the system, which is to guarantee full access to Soviet published output by major Soviet libraries. For example, as of May, 1961, it was charged the Central Distributing Agency had not yet received 1,500 titles which had been published in 1960.

Despite the inadequacies attributed to it by Soviet library journals, this system remains an important source of acquisition by Soviet libraries. At present 252 major Soviet libraries use its services. In 1960 this service provided Soviet libraries with 3,845,000 copies of books representing 45,094 titles.⁷

Library Book Collectors⁸

While the principal sources of supply for the large Soviet libraries are the legal deposit system and the priced deposit system,

⁴This is one of the Library Book Collectors described in the section immediately below.

⁵This was the figure mentioned in the notes of one member of the delegation, it varies from year to year.

⁶For specific examples, see Horecky, p 19-20.

⁷*Bibliotekar*, No. 7, 1961, p.55.

⁸These Bibliotekhnnye Kollektory (literally "Library Collectors") represent a unique institution; their closest equivalents in the United States are book jobbers who specialize in service to libraries.

the smaller libraries also have a rich central source of acquisition—the Bibliotekhnnyye Kollektory, library book-supply agencies which are organs of the official retail book organizations of each major city and province. One major difference between the systems for the large and for the smaller libraries is that the large libraries receive the deposit copies free or at a discount, whereas the smaller libraries pay retail prices for their purchases from the Collectors. Another important difference is that the legal deposit copies arrive on the doorsteps of the large libraries and must be sorted and processed with the libraries' own resources, whereas the Collectors provide their client libraries with numerous types of assistance in book selection and (to a much lesser extent) in processing. A third difference is that the smaller libraries do not have the guarantee that desired publications will be available, even for a price.

Soviet book-trade statistics show how important the Collectors are as sources of library acquisition. In 1956, roughly one third of the entire retail sales of Soviet books were made to Soviet libraries, and more than one half of these sales were made by the Collectors.⁹

There are four Library Book Collectors in Moscow, each specializing in service to different types of libraries: public libraries, children's and school libraries, research libraries,¹⁰ and technical libraries. The delegation visited the last organization.

These library supply agencies function throughout the USSR. At the two village libraries visited by the delegation (one near Leningrad, the other near Kiev) it was found that the local Collector played a major role in each library's selection and acquisition procedures. For example, in the village of Borispol in the Ukraine, the librarian said that she purchased 70 per cent of her acquisitions from the province Collector and that she visited this supply house about once a month to make her selections with the help of the Collector's staff.

The Book Trade

Although the centralized and special services described above provide Soviet libraries of all sizes and types with the major portion of their acquisition of current Soviet publications, the retail bookstores remain an important source of supply. In 1956, Soviet libraries purchased 381,700,000 (old) rubles worth of books from Collectors, and 344,800,000 worth from ordinary bookstores.¹¹

⁹Horecky, p.23.

¹⁰This Central Distributing Agency for Research Libraries also carries out the additional function of distributing the priced deposit copies to the larger—usually research—libraries, a service described on p.39-40.

¹¹Horecky, *loc. cit.*

Soviet bookstores are one of the most striking phenomena that foreign visitors encounter in the USSR, because of their large number and because of the crowds of buying customers (215,000 daily in Moscow, it was said) who push against their counters.

There are said to be 170 bookstores in Moscow, 340 book kiosks, 500 bookstands run by "volunteers," and 13,000 youths selling books "voluntarily." The Director of Moskniga, the central bookselling agency of Moscow, told the delegation that his organization sold 90 million copies of books annually for a gross of 46 million (new) rubles. These data indicate, incidentally, that the average price is approximately 50 (new) kopeks¹² per item. These phenomena—numerous bookstores filled with avid customers—are not characteristic of Moscow alone. Every city visited was the same in this respect.

The larger proportion of the book stock of these stores consists of currently published works. But practically every store has a secondhand book department, and several of the stores specialize in out-of-print publications—and one of the outstanding characteristics of the Soviet book trade is that newly published titles are sold so fast that many become out-of-print very quickly, sometimes literally within a matter of hours.

Every Soviet library visited, and most particularly the smaller public libraries, supplement their acquisitions from either legal deposit or Collector with purchases from the local bookstores. The delegation had the impression that most of these purchases must represent out-of-print materials and publications from outside the USSR. The 1959 *Annual Report* of the Lenin Library (pages 22, 23) shows that retrospective purchases of older Russian and Soviet publications in 1959 numbered 18,435 books, 17,215 issues of periodicals, and 62,501 issues of newspapers. Data on its purchase of foreign books appear on page 46.

Book Mail Delivery Service (Kniga-Pochtoi)

The Ministry of Culture of each republic has a department which sells books by mail order.¹³ The prices are higher than retail, but the convenience probably compensates for the additional costs. The librarian of the Moscow City Library reported that the service was particularly useful for obtaining publications from republics other than the RSFSR.

The delegation did not obtain precise information about postal

¹² A kopek represents one-hundredth part of a ruble.

¹³ A principal purpose of this book-by-mail service is to provide a source of book purchase to individual citizens who live in areas remote from bookstores. The service is also available to libraries.

charges and later wondered whether the Kniga-Pochtoi system might also have been affected by the Party Decree of 1959 which stated: "The cost of packing and shipping of books received by mail order from bookstores and library book collectors (book distribution centers), heretofore paid by the libraries, is to be charged to bookstores and collectors."¹⁴

Subscription

Libraries not receiving materials on legal deposit obtain their periodicals by subscriptions placed with Soiuzpechat, a central state-controlled subscription agency.

Publishers

Since libraries are repositories of books and since publishing houses produce books, there is in any country an inseparable relationship between the two sets of institutions. Publishing houses, however, produce and distribute books for a wider market than libraries alone. These generalizations are as true in the USSR as they are in any country in Western Europe or North America.

For these reasons the United States delegation concentrated its attention only on those aspects of the Soviet publishing and book-distributing activities which directly affected Soviet libraries (and United States libraries as well).¹⁵ Thus, only one publishing house was visited, and this by only one member of the group. This visit disclosed, however, that the relationship between publishers and libraries was less remote than might be expected from the numerous and active middleman services mentioned above.

In the first place, larger libraries can place standing orders directly with a publisher for certain types of publications for a given number of copies, or for a specific number of copies of a title listed in a publisher's prepublication list.

In the second place, publishers are trying to facilitate the ordering and processing of books by libraries. Lenizdat, the publisher visited by one member of the group, has recently begun printing its "thematic plan" (prepublication list) on one side of the page only so that libraries can clip items in which they are interested and paste them on cards. These cards can serve as an order record or even as a catalog entry. Attempts by publishers to assist libraries in

¹⁴ Translation by Victor Fediai in *ALA Bulletin*, 54:380 (May, 1960).

¹⁵ A definitive account of the Soviet publishing and book-distributing industries can be found in Boris I. Gorokhoff's *Publishing in the U.S.S.R.* ("Indiana University Publications. Slavic and East European Series" [Bloomington, Ind., 1959]).

various ways were considerably accelerated by a Party Decree of 1959. The most spectacular development in this direction has been the participation, beginning in 1960, of Soviet publishing houses in a project which is called "centralized cataloging" in the USSR and is a version of what is known in the United States as "cataloging-in-source." This development is described more fully in Chapter V.

And in still another area, unrelated to book procurement or processing, a third interesting interplay between publisher and library was noted. Libraries, it seems, play a role in the selection of books to be written and published. This is true at least of Lenizdat's publishing program, and probably applies to other large Soviet publishing houses as well. Lenizdat's editors, in planning their list one year in advance, consult several sources. One of the important sources is the library network. Approximately 3,000 libraries in the Leningrad area systematically gather readers' wishes for types of literature or specific topics about which they would like to read. These are collected by the Library Book Collector, who transmits the list of readers' requests to Lenizdat. When the preliminary plan for the following year's list has been drawn up (based on requests and instructions from several other sources than libraries), the prepublication draft list is submitted to librarians (as well as to others) for comment and advice. Thus libraries and their readers appear to influence the Soviet publishing industry through other means than mere postpublication market demand.

Exchange (Domestic)

Practically every library visited, irrespective of type or size, mentioned exchange with other Soviet libraries as a source of acquisition. It seemed to be a standard, but not outstandingly important, method of acquisition. One provincial library reported that it acquired 50,000 volumes annually and that it sent 100,000 unneeded volumes to other libraries of the Soviet Union. Such a ratio raises the question: how valuable to other libraries were those discarded volumes?

Horecky reported¹⁸ that in 1957 an estimated 21 million volumes were exchanged among libraries in the USSR. He stated, further, that an active discussion was being carried on among Soviet librarians concerning a more systematic organization of interlibrary exchange through centralized collecting points or union catalogs of duplicates. The Party Decree of 1959 also ordered that "useful duplicates be redistributed between libraries," and the

¹⁸ Horecky, p.18.

delegation was told that some kind of clearinghouse of information about duplicates was still under discussion.

Purchase of Private Collections

The notes of the seven members of the group show that only one library (Moscow University) mentioned purchase of individual citizens' libraries as a source of acquisition. An expert on the Soviet book market, not a Soviet citizen, told one of the group that private collections are becoming so scarce a source of secondhand books that the antiquarian book market in the Soviet Union is drying up to the point of insignificance. Certainly the extreme shortage of living space for the past forty odd years must have discouraged private antiquarian book collecting. A Soviet writer recently describing the living quarters in the ideal society of the future asserted approvingly that the construction of new libraries "will replace the need for furnishing apartments with outsized home libraries."¹⁷

Free Publications

A very large proportion of all "books"¹⁸ published in the USSR are not for sale. In 1960, 32.6 per cent of all books produced were in the "unpriced" (*besplatno*) category.¹⁹ These publications are probably the closest equivalent one can find in the USSR to what Americans know as "official documents."

The delegation was not told how these publications were acquired by Soviet libraries. Undoubtedly they are received by the largest libraries through legal deposit. Since, however, they are not in the book market, smaller libraries must have some special means of obtaining them. Most publications in this category are technical or administrative in content. Probably, therefore, special libraries are the principal collectors.

Foreign Publications

The previous pages in this chapter relate to the acquisition of materials published within the boundaries of the USSR. The acquisition of foreign publications is discussed separately below, for the methods and relative emphasis on the various methods differ.

¹⁷ *Nauka i Zhizn*, 27, No. 9:21 (September, 1960).

¹⁸ Quotation marks are used because the Soviet definition of a book includes "pamphlet" in United States terminology, and pamphlets constitute a large percentage of total Soviet "book" publication.

¹⁹ *Pechat SSSR v 1960 godu*, p.20.

Purchase

Only a sketchy picture of procurement of foreign publications by purchase was obtained. It was known that Mezhdunarodnaia Kniga, through its numerous agents throughout the world and directly, is the central Soviet agency for import as well as for export of publications. The delegates did not learn, however, the detailed procedures whereby Soviet libraries select and purchase publications from this organization. Nor were they given a clear notion in any library of the exact size of its budget for the purchase of foreign works. Some libraries, it was learned, supplemented their acquisition of foreign works by purchasing them in Soviet second-hand bookstores. The smaller public libraries—which also have small collections of foreign books—obtained them from this latter source and (one librarian reported) from the Publishing House of Foreign Literature in Moscow as well.

Horecky reports²⁰ a decree of the USSR Council of Ministers (June 25, 1955) ordering the Ministries of Culture, Higher Education, and Public Health to obtain two extra copies of all foreign scientific literature and of the most valuable foreign belles-lettres; to send one set to the Lenin Library; and to divide the other as follows: technology publications to the State Technological Library, medical publications to the State Central Medical Research Library, and all other fields to the Foreign Literature Library. The delegates were not told about this decree by their Soviet hosts, nor did they see any indirect evidence of its implementation. Some plan like it may well be in effect, however, for it is in character with the active interest of Soviet authorities in learning as much as possible about foreign (and particularly United States) scientific and engineering techniques and in making Soviet libraries forceful conveyers of such knowledge.

While very few statistics of foreign acquisition were given during the oral interviews, some of the printed material presented to the group contained the following data for two of the major libraries. In 1959, the Lenin Library²¹ acquired 73,568 foreign books (apparently currently published). Of these, 32,450 were purchased and 41,118 obtained on international exchange. In addition, it acquired 12,860 older foreign titles, though the means of acquisition were not specified. The Fundamental Library of Social Sciences of the Academy of Sciences—52 per cent of whose entire collection consists of foreign titles—acquired, in 1958, 28,142 foreign

²⁰ Horecky, p.21.

²¹ According to its 1959 *Annual Report*, p.23.

publications: 4,890 were purchased abroad, 22,510 were obtained on exchange, and 742 by other, unspecified means.²²

Perhaps it should be mentioned in passing that a few foreign titles—most, apparently, belles-lettres—are published in the original language in the USSR. These, of course, are available for purchase on the Soviet book market.

Exchange (International)

From the emphasis the Soviet hosts placed on international exchange the delegation was led to believe that it was their principal source of acquisition of foreign books. Indeed, the Librarian of Leningrad University stated that it was—the ratio between publications acquired on exchange and those acquired by purchase being 3 to 1 in his library. As shown above the ratio is even higher at the Fundamental Library of Social Sciences. The delegates are inclined to think, however, that such ratios cannot prevail in the largest libraries, particularly those served by the Ministry of Culture in the manner specified by the June 25, 1955, Decree. This is indicated in the statistics cited above regarding the Lenin Library. It was noticeable that the smaller research and university libraries expressed most interest in exchange, though it is possible that their special emphasis was due to a desire to establish and increase exchange relations with the libraries represented by the members of the United States delegation. These smaller institutions have been permitted to engage in international exchange for only the past few years. Until 1955 all international book exchange had to be centralized through either the Lenin Library or the libraries of the Academy of Sciences, these being the only libraries permitted to deal directly with foreign libraries.

The largest libraries are placed in an advantageous position in book exchange by the legal deposit system. The extra sets given to the Lenin Library (two extra sets) and to the Saltykov-Shchedrin Library (one extra set) are specifically intended for use in exchanges.

Some of the larger libraries visited complained that their balance of trade with United States libraries was unfavorable to them. In each of these cases the librarians had voluminous records and statistics to support their arguments. Some of their accounting was based on title count, some on monetary value. The group of United States librarians could not evaluate these charges, but

²² Akademiia Nauk SSSR, *Fundamentalnaya Biblioteka Obshchestvennykh Nauk (iz opyta raboty za 40 let): Sbornik Statei* (Moscow: Akad. Nauk, 1960), p.85,99.

individual members are investigating the matter in their own institutions and making inquiries of other United States libraries regarding the basis for the Soviet claims. At the Lenin Library, at least, an imbalance is built into its recent annual plans. For the year 1959 it planned to send 255,500 items abroad on international exchange and to receive 170,500 items.²³

A few librarians mentioned domestic exchange as another source of acquisition of foreign publications. It was the impression of the delegation, however, that the flow of books in this channel was only a trickle. It is improbable that the duplicate stocks of foreign titles are very large in any Soviet library except the Lenin Library and the Library of Foreign Literature.

International Interlibrary Loan

Ordinarily interlibrary loan would, of course, be out of place in a chapter on library collections.²⁴ International interlibrary loan on a significant scale is, however, a relatively new phenomenon in the USSR, having been instituted and encouraged by a Decree of the Ministry of Culture on October 31, 1955. It may, therefore, be a noteworthy source of acquisition of foreign publications since every librarian with whom the matter was discussed stressed that receipt of microfilm in lieu of original copies in interlibrary loan would be quite acceptable. One would think it probable that these films (and original copies, too) become acquisitions through copying.

SELECTION

Mr. Gavrilov, in his summary of impressions of what the Soviet delegation of librarians saw in the United States, presented at the summing-up meeting in Moscow on June 1, 1961, commented very favorably on American methods of book selection in large public libraries. He said: "There is no possibility of a book getting into a U.S. library by mere chance." Although this flattering remark is hardly deserved, it indicates how important the highest Soviet library authorities consider it to be to have the right collection for the right people in Soviet libraries. A Decree of the Communist Party of the autumn of 1959 ordered the discontinuance of

²³ The Lenin Library 1959 *Annual Report*, p.5. There is an error in the table in which this figure appears. It shows the actual export in 1959 to have been 238,393 and designates it as 105.7 per cent fulfillment. Whatever the actual planned figure, however, it is obviously higher than the figure for planned receipts.

²⁴ It is discussed, in the appropriate place, in Chapter IV, "Readers' Services."

"the practice of sending books to libraries without a definite request for them." Directed at "library supply centers" (i.e., primarily Library Book Collectors)²⁵, the Decree went on to say: "The scope and function of the libraries should always be taken into consideration when preparing publication schedules and when supplementing library book holdings." Thus the principle of book selection by libraries was extended all the way back to original publishing. The manner in which Soviet publishers are guided by libraries in drawing up their publication plans has been briefly mentioned above.

It seems that the larger research libraries have no special problems in book selection. Each of the large general libraries has subject specialists on its staff who are relied upon—and no doubt justifiably—to choose publications wisely within the limits of what readers want, what they are told they should read, and what they are permitted to read.

The actual procedure of book selection in the large general libraries appeared to be so similar to standard United States practice that there is little point in describing it here. A reader interested in detail will find the process outlined in Supplements 2 and 3 of Horecky's book,²⁶ where he presents translations of the Lenin Library's regulations concerning selection and acquisition policies and procedures.

As in the United States, the procedures in university libraries are different from those in the large general libraries. At Moscow University the delegation was told that the University received deposit copies free of charge; it was also said that in 1962 the University would begin ordering Soviet books from publishers' pre-publication lists. How these two disparate procedures of selection and acquisition relate to each other was not clear. The method of selection of duplicate or multiple copies was described more precisely. Twice a week, it was said, the professors systematically examined new acquisitions and decided which titles they wanted to have in more than one copy. The Deputy Director of the Library and the Chief of the Acquisitions Department exercised final decision. Duplicates were purchased from local bookstores.

The procedure in selecting foreign publications was described in somewhat more detail. The staff of the University Library's Department of Acquisition of Foreign Literature (sixteen in number) made a preliminary selection and wrote the titles on cards. These were presented to the Council of Professors who designated the

²⁵ As made quite specific by Mr. Gavrilov in his article, "The Great Tasks of Soviet Libraries," *Biblioteki SSSR: Opyt Raboty*, No. 13, 1960, p.35.

²⁶ Horecky, p.179-82.

titles first, second, or third in quality. Any disagreement was resolved by the Chief of the Department.

It is in the selection procedures of the smaller public libraries that Soviet practice shows itself to be unique. It is also this type of library to which the Soviet authorities have recently turned their concentrated attention. The larger libraries spend a considerable number of man-hours preparing selection guides of many types to assist smaller libraries.

Mr. Gavrilov, in his report at the summing-up conference at the end of the delegation's visit, stressed the importance of assistance from top command in book selection. Though librarians performed book selection in their own libraries, he said, they needed help. He mentioned, in this connection, the important role of the Book Collectors and added that the larger libraries of the Soviet Union provided a very widespread service of recommended selection guides.

The Director of the Lenin Library reported that the Lenin Library felt "obligated" to help all other libraries with respect to guidance in book selection, particularly since the volume of published materials was so vast. The Director also pointed out that the Saltykov-Shchedrin Library also played an important role in producing guides to book selection.

The 1959 *Annual Report* of the Lenin Library (pages 49-51) provides some measure of the volume of such aids to selection. In that year the Lenin Library published forty-one "recommended reading lists," varying from about 20 to 336 pages in length. Fourteen were classified as "general"; five as "social and political"; five, "belles-lettres and art"; fifteen, "natural sciences, technology, and agriculture"; and two, "literature for children and youths." The number of copies printed varied from 1,000 to 40,000; the average was approximately 18,000. Typical titles are *New Developments in Medicine*, 16 pages, 10,000 copies; *Foreign Literature*, 204 pages, 23,500 copies; *Read the Works of Lenin, Our Teacher*, 36 pages, 38,000 copies.

Similar guides to selection are issued by all the larger libraries. Though intended for the use of both their own readers and smaller libraries, the principal target appears to be the latter.

The second principal source of aid in book selection for smaller libraries is the service extended by the Book Collectors. It seems that the smaller the library, the more reliance it places on the Book Collector. Earlier in this chapter the use made of this service by village librarians was mentioned. To serve the needs of their clientele, Book Collectors pay particular attention to the selection of books in their stocks and make efforts to assist libraries in selecting from that stock.

The delegates assume that the activity of the Book Collector for Technical Libraries, which they visited, is typical. There, they were told, the staff reads reviews, consults publishers regarding their publishing plans, and receives guidance from the State Public Technological Library in building its stock. To assist librarians in choosing from its stock the Collector maintains a card catalog and also an open-shelf collection; librarians, visiting the Collector, may select from either. The Collector sends representatives to the larger industrial libraries three times a month, where they show samples and review new books. A representative also visits various towns on the outskirts of Moscow, where he holds meetings of technical librarians, prepares book exhibits in technical libraries, and in these and other ways advertises new and useful publications.

Medium-sized public libraries, which are staffed by better-trained librarians than are the smaller libraries, apparently use more initiative and a wider range of selective tools. For example, the Moscow City Library selects its titles, bearing readers' requests in mind, from the printed catalog cards it receives from the All-Union Book Chamber.

Very little was learned about the policies of book selection. It was discovered that the big general research libraries (and university libraries) of the largest cities were guided to a certain extent by principles of division of interest and avoidance of indiscriminate duplication. In the smaller libraries it was often said that selection was guided by readers' demand. Since the bulk of public libraries' collections seem to be chosen in accordance with lists prepared at or toward the top of the library pyramid, one can only assume that book selection is for the most part guided in accordance with the Soviet government's established objectives for library service.

The delegates were in no position to judge how successful book selection practices were in terms of the policies they were intended to serve. They knew too little about the policies and saw too little of the collections, as they rushed from library to library, to evaluate practice against policy in any event. In only one narrow field of literature were they able to draw conclusions of which they could be confident: the selection of translated works of American novelists.²⁷ Here they found belles-lettres of the United States peculiarly misrepresented.²⁸ For example, the Moscow City Library issued a

²⁷ The delegates saw many titles in the original English, too. But these were the same as the translated titles.

²⁸ Details concerning this subject can be found in M. J. Ruggles, "American Books in Soviet Publishing," *Slavic Review*, October, 1961, p.419-35.

recommended reading list of American prose works as a guide to its own readers and to smaller libraries. A preface stated that it contained "the most important literary products of the U.S.A. published after the Second World War" and told the reader that by using this list he could become acquainted with modern American literature. The list, in its entirety, follows:

Robert Bowen, *Matter of Price*
 Ray Bradbury, *Fahrenheit 451*
 Lloyd L. Brown, *Iron City*
 Erskine Caldwell, *Gulf Coast Stories* and *Tales and Stories*
 Jay Deiss, *A Washington Story*
 Martha Dodd, *The Searching Light*
 William Faulkner, *Seven Stories*
 Ernest Hemingway, *Get a Seeing-Eye Dog* (short story)
 and *The Old Man and the Sea*
 Langston Hughes, *Trouble with the Angels*
 Felix Jackson, *So Help Me God*
 John O. Killens, *Youngblood*
 Sinclair Lewis, *Kingsblood Royal*
 Albert Maltz, *A Long Day in a Short Life*
 Dexter Masters, *The Accident*
 William Saroyan, *Adventures of Wesley Jackson*
 Alexander P. Saxton, *The Great Midland*
 John Steinbeck, *The Pearl*
 Robert Sylvester, *The Second Oldest Profession*
 John Weaver, *Another Such Victory*
 Mitchell Wilson, *My Brother, My Enemy; Davy Mallory;*
 and *Live with Lightning*

In summary, the delegation was well impressed by the determination and thoroughness with which the Soviet library authorities carried out their basic intention of stocking their libraries with the books they wanted their citizens to read. The generosity of the legal deposit system and the apparently wise methods of distributing the books were striking. The liberal book funds apparently available to all libraries were impressive. The varied, energetic, and effective means used to make it easier for librarians to select and acquire books are probably not surpassed elsewhere.

SOVIET COLLECTIONS TODAY

The Library of the Academy of Sciences in Leningrad was created by Peter the Great in 1714. The Saltykov-Shchedrin Library in the same city was founded in 1795, when it was known as the Imperial



The Saltykov-Shchedrin Public Library, Leningrad. When founded in 1795, it was known as the Imperial Public Library; later its name was changed to honor the Russian writer, M. E. Saltykov-Shchedrin.

Public Library. The Lenin Library, based on the private collection of a nobleman named Rumiantsev, opened its doors to the public in 1862.

Given the many decades that these and several other Russian and Soviet libraries have been growing, and given the vigorous Russian intellectual life of the past three centuries which these libraries have served, one would surmise that their collections are among the greatest in the world. As every member of the delegation observed, one need only enter a few of the departments and take a quick walk through a small part of the stacks of such libraries to sense at once that they are truly great libraries.

This being true, it might offhand be expected that the United States delegation would devote a major part of its report to the content of these collections. Paradoxically, perhaps, the importance of the task must be in inverse proportion to the capability of the group to perform it. A mere month spent in hurried visits to over forty libraries and related institutions tended more to disqualify than to qualify the delegation for any expert evaluation of the collections of the great libraries which they entered and left in such haste. Nor was the group as a whole equipped with the languages required for an appreciation of the collections.

With respect to the collections of libraries in the USSR, therefore, the delegation felt that it could report only two things:

(1) these collections are obviously rich and (2) the delegation feels that these riches should be studied by some competent authority and reported to the world at large.

RARE BOOKS AND MANUSCRIPTS

Several extraordinary rare book and manuscript departments were visited briefly. Especially rich are those of the Lenin Library at Moscow, the Saltykov-Shchedrin Library at Leningrad, the USSR Academy of Sciences library at Leningrad, and the Ukrainian Academy of Sciences Library at Kiev. The Lenin Library claims with justifiable pride some 210,000 rare books, 40,000 issues of rare periodicals, 600,000 pieces of art materials (engravings, lithographs, handbills, and posters), and 30,000 manuscript books from the eleventh to the fifteenth centuries. It features a large Cyrillic collection and has taken steps toward the compilation of a union catalog of all manuscript collections in the Soviet Union. At the Saltykov-Shchedrin Library some 6,000 incunabula are displayed most impressively in a special room with hand-carved wood shelving and other attractive appointments. Nearby is Voltaire's personal library,²⁹ purchased by Catherine the Great. This department, with a staff of eighty people, has all the atmosphere of a truly great library. The Ukrainian Academy of Sciences Library at Kiev contains 269,000 manuscripts and 200,000 books printed from the fifteenth through the eighteenth centuries.

These are rich and great collections. Yet the delegation observed shortcomings in the methods by which these treasures are handled and exhibited. Many of them were displayed without supports or other protection against permanent damage. Volumes were left open at the same pages for long periods of time—a practice which could lead to bindings being weakened or broken. Paper clips were used to mark places, and the resulting creases and rust marks were already evident on some pages.

PRESERVATION AND MAINTENANCE OF COLLECTIONS

Although the physical condition of the collections in many children's and other mass libraries is poor, that of the major research libraries is good. The concern of American research libraries about the deterioration of paper, not only in old and rare books but also in the general stock of books published since the

²⁹Since the delegation's return to the United States, the Library of Congress has acquired a catalog of this collection (see *LC Information Bulletin*, 21, No. 2:22 (January 8, 1962).

late-nineteenth century, led the delegation to inquire into Soviet thinking about this problem. It found that, while key Soviet librarians are familiar with the studies conducted by W. J. Barrow at the Virginia State Library, they are not seriously concerned about the problem he is attacking. Indeed, the delegation itself was impressed by the excellent condition in Soviet libraries of many materials that are rapidly disintegrating in American libraries. For example, a poorly bound 1936 volume of *Pravda* was found in the University Library at Samarkand in almost perfect condition; the pages appeared to be freshly off the press.³⁰ In all parts of the Soviet Union visited by the delegation, book paper (and card catalog stock, as well) appeared to be lasting longer than the same paper in the United States. This observation suggests the desirability of further studies of the conditions of book storage and of the factors which affect the rate of deterioration of paper.

Soviet librarians are meticulously careful about the preservation and restoration of important materials that show specific signs of deterioration. The Lenin Library cleans all books in its stacks twice a year with vacuum cleaners, employing eighteen persons. In addition, it employs two persons, full time, to inspect the collections. They check the first four and last four pages of every book for signs of trouble. Books that are beginning to deteriorate are sent to the library's Department of Preservation, which currently restores about 380,000 leaves each year. Books that suffer excessive acidity are treated in an ammonia chamber.³¹ The temperature and humidity in the stacks are carefully regulated. The Department of Preservation has three research laboratories that are working on mycological, entomological, and chemical aspects of book preservation. Specimens of various kinds of deterioration, not only from the Lenin Library but also from other parts of the Soviet Union, are submitted to these laboratories for investigation and the development of practical methods of prevention and cure. The Lenin Library is now constructing a vacuum chamber for treatment of insect-infested books.

The Lenin Library also takes special precautions to preserve microfilms. The Special Institute of Cinematography is working on problems of preservation and protection of photographic films. The Library takes measures to insure that residual hypo is removed in the process of developing, and it stores microfilms in conditions of 50-60 per cent relative humidity and at 18° centigrade (64 2/5° Fahrenheit).

³⁰ This was *not* a rag paper or other special edition. Careful examination showed that it was printed on the original groundwood paper stock.

³¹ United States experts are dubious about the effectiveness of ammonia vapor for neutralizing acidity in book papers.

The delegation was well impressed by the care taken by the Lenin Library of its collections. It did not see and was not told of similar measures in any other library visited. Yet the condition of books and other paper materials (including catalog cards)³² in most Soviet libraries seemed, on superficial examination, to be much better than the condition of similar materials³³ in United States libraries. The delegation could only conclude that there are unknown or insufficiently tested factors at work—meteorological(?), frequency of use(?), environmental(?)—which operate differently in the two countries, affecting library materials in different ways.

AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

Soviet libraries in general are not now used as agencies for the acquisition, preservation, or dissemination of information through audio-visual media other than the traditional graphic materials, such as prints and maps. The delegation saw no motion-picture films or sound recordings in any library. Yet some beginnings were evident. The Pushkin Children's Library at Kalinin had a room where films were shown. Recordings were said to be kept in the music department of the Kalinin Oblast Library. At District Library 123 in Moscow it was learned that recordings were borrowed from "special" libraries. School Library 151 in Moscow may borrow educational films from its district center, where the Ministry of Education maintains an audio-visual center. Dramatic films may be borrowed from the Ministry of Culture.

The Soviets granted that their libraries should be servicing audio-visual materials. The social significance of these materials, the values of coordinating their use with that of related book materials, and the necessity of applying library methods to their organization in large numbers for popular use—all these considerations dictate their eventual incorporation into established library services.

COUNTING OF ACQUISITIONS AND COLLECTIONS

How large are Soviet libraries in comparison with American libraries? Both the Soviet delegation that visited the United States and the American delegation that visited the Soviet Union were interested in this question; neither found an answer. It is clear,

³²See Chapter V, "Technical Services," for data on the durability of Soviet catalog cards.

³³By "similar materials" is meant, precisely, two copies of the same title of the same edition kept in a Soviet and a United States library respectively. American custodians of *Pravda* for 1936, for example, have a vastly different problem than do librarians in Samarkand, as indicated above.

however, that Soviet methods of counting library materials produce an appreciably higher statistic than do American methods. American librarians have felt that their library resources have in the past been unfairly represented in direct statistical comparisons; Soviet librarians have resented the implication that their figures are padded. The fact is simply that different methods of counting library resources produce different figures, and no valid comparison of Soviet and American statistics is possible at this time.

The Soviet method of counting library materials is based not upon the "volume" as defined in American libraries but upon the printer's unit. Generally speaking, each separate physical unit, as received from the printer, is accessioned and counted. The count is an accession statistic. Three pamphlets are counted as three, even though they may later be bound together. Individual issues of periodicals are usually counted separately.³⁴ The method is direct, simple, and capable of consistent application; and it produces impressive figures.

During visits to a number of Soviet libraries, members of the United States delegation estimated linear feet of shelving in reading rooms as a means of comparing the Soviet count of volumes on those shelves, as reported to the delegation by their Soviet hosts, with the capacity of the same shelves as computed by routine American formulas (e.g., six to eight volumes per linear foot). In every instance, the number of volumes by American count that could be put on those shelves was hardly half of what was actually there by Soviet count.

Members of both library delegations speculated about the possibility that some gross formula might be devised to equate Soviet and American statistics of at least large research libraries,³⁵ and Mr. Gavrilov proposed negotiations toward an international agreement on a uniform method. It is hoped that such studies and discussions will be pursued in one way or another as a result of this exchange of library delegations.

³⁴ Some of the "thin" periodicals (e.g., *Ogonek*) are counted by a system identical with the American: a bound volume constitutes the unit.

³⁵ R. C. Swank, for example, estimated that the Stanford University Libraries, which now report about 1,500,000 volumes and 2 million other pieces that are organized for use, might report as many as 6 million units according to the Soviet method.

Chapter IV

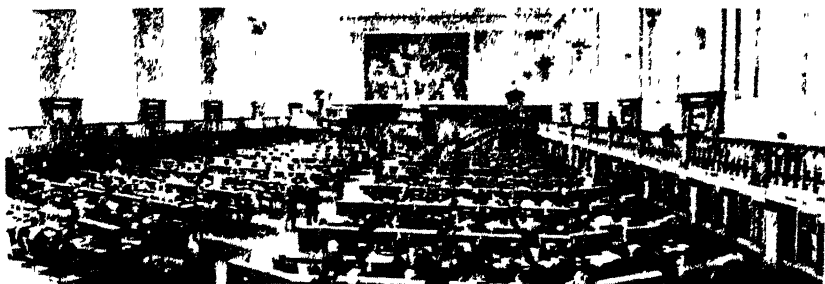
Readers' Services

Considerable emphasis is placed on readers' services by all Soviet libraries. Service to readers, indeed, is the major emphasis placed by most Soviet libraries on all their activities, in their role as mass media for social education and political propaganda. Reading interests are studied, bibliographies and reading lists are widely distributed, and new books are effectively displayed. The library conducts numerous programs of general cultural interest and actually engages the participation of readers in many phases of its work. The collections are intensively used by people of all ages. The close relationships that the library is developing with the community impressed the American delegation. This chapter will review briefly some of the more interesting aspects of the service programs that were observed.

ACCESS AND USE OF LIBRARIES

With few exceptions the libraries of the Soviet Union appear to be heavily used. The reading rooms of the scholarly libraries are often well occupied not only with students but also with serious adult readers—scientists, workers, and professional people. This seriousness of purpose is also evident in the mass libraries, where the use of scientific, technological, and other nonfiction books appears to be relatively high. The demand for foreign literature, especially for language training, is conspicuous.

Access to library collections and services has become increasingly liberal since a Communist Party decree of 1959, which insisted



Lenin Library

Reading room for the social sciences and humanities, Lenin Library, Moscow—one of twenty-two reading rooms in the Library

that "all libraries must be mass libraries open to the public."¹ The present intention is that every citizen should be free to use any library in the country—mass, special, university, and research libraries alike. In practice, Soviet citizens have access to library collections to about the same extent that American citizens are free to use the general reading rooms and open-shelf reading room collections of most libraries in the United States. But not all collections and services are equally available to all citizens, either in the United States or the Soviet Union.

Readers in the larger, more scholarly Soviet libraries are rigidly classified on the basis of their academic status or achievements, and library privileges are granted or withheld accordingly. Generally speaking, the Soviets appear to attach more prestige and privilege to academic or scientific status than do Americans. Library privileges and services are typically divided into student (popular) and research (scholarly or scientific). Separate reading rooms and loan facilities are usually provided.

For example, the Saltykov-Shchedrin Library classifies readers as scholars, specialists in branches of science and industry, students, and children. One library card admits readers to all reading rooms, the delegation was told. The Lenin Library, on the other hand, restricts the reader to the reading rooms that serve his particular category. The Academy of Sciences Library restricts borrowing privileges to persons with scientific degrees and to the library staff. The Leningrad University library has two main reading halls, one for students and the other for scientists, and the loan division consists of four separate desks: scientists, students, fiction (or recreational), and interlibrary loan. The Ukrainian Academy of Sciences Library provides separate reading rooms for

¹ *Pravda*, October 2, 1959.

students, people with higher education, and academicians. The academicians have a special loan section. Kiev State University has a study library for students (about 300,000 book units) and a research library (about 800,000 units). Graduate students may use the research library. The Ukrainian State Republic Library has a general reading room for students and a special research reading room. Four separate stations in the loan department service science and technology, social and political sciences, fiction, and periodicals. A separate lending collection contains about 117,000 book units.

In most of these libraries, borrowing privileges and access to collections vary widely with the status of the reader, probably more so than in American libraries. In mass libraries these distinctions are less evident, although instances of special privileges were noted. In a trade-union library, for example, factory workers are permitted to go to the head of the line of readers waiting at the loan desk and to use an exclusive reading room.

A very small proportion of the books in Soviet libraries is accessible on open shelves. The proportion is increasing, however, and the shelves of some 30,000 libraries (out of 400,000) are now said to have been opened. Access in a number of the smaller mass libraries was observed to be excellent. In the larger libraries, however, the main collections are universally closed, except to advanced scholars in some cases. The reading rooms of most large libraries typically contain auxiliary collections or stacks of frequently used materials, which are often but not always open to readers. Popular lending collections are sometimes open to students and other general readers. The shelves of children's libraries are usually closed.

The present policy of extending the open-shelf practice in Soviet libraries is exemplified in the Ukraine. At the Ukrainian State Republic Library the delegation learned that almost half of the libraries in the network of the Ministry of Culture (7,000 out of 15,000 mass, trade-union, and other popular libraries) now have open shelves. The State Republic Library itself began opening its shelves four years ago. It had tried to do so unsuccessfully in the early 1920's; the general public at that time was still too illiterate. By now, a large proportion of the population has at least a secondary-school education. The Library, in its capacity as the methodological center for the Ukraine, has issued a guidance booklet on "Open Access to Book Collections." Now that universal education is approaching realization under the Soviet regime, library officials intend to open the shelves of an increasing number of libraries to all readers.

Regarding reader access to library collections, one Soviet practice particularly interested the delegation—the practice of reserving

the author catalog for staff use only. Over and over again, the delegation learned that a classified subject catalog was open to the public, but that if a reader wanted a book by a specific author he was required to enlist the help of the library staff. The staff looked up the call number and the location of the book for him. In author catalogs closed to the public. In view of the multiplicity and complexity of catalogs in the larger Soviet libraries it is understandable that readers would need help from the library staff. Even in the smaller libraries readers might be expected to need more assistance in the use of library catalogs than is common in the United States, because widespread literacy has been a relatively recent achievement in the USSR and skill in reading does not necessarily imply sophistication in using library facilities. But the fact that only assisting librarians may consult catalogs not available to the public suggested to the delegation—and cursory checks made in several library catalogs seemed to confirm—that not all books owned by a library are listed in the public catalogs. The delegation felt, moreover, that if a reader wanted a title by a particular author and if he were allowed to read it, the most efficient means of directing him to it would be a public author catalog of all books in the library.

Members of the delegation examined parts of the author catalog at the Lenin Library and even there found missing some authors whose works were objectionable to Soviet authorities. It was assumed that such books were kept in the special closed section which has its own catalog. This collection, called *Spetskhran*, is a common feature of large Soviet research libraries.²

Control of access to some materials is also achieved by the system of admittance to special reading rooms. In a small special reading room of a major research library the delegation saw a reader (the sole occupant of this room) reading the *New York Times*. It was later learned that entrance to this room was permitted only by a special card.³

Hours of library service were found to be not only generous but also conveniently adjusted to the needs of working people. Soviet librarians bend every effort to keep their doors open when all classes of readers are most free to come. Typically, small mass libraries that can staff only one shift are likely to be open seven hours during the afternoon and evening. Larger mass libraries are usually open from 10 a.m. to 10 p.m. daily including Sunday, but are closed on Thursday. Academy and university libraries frequently

² It is defined and briefly described in a Soviet dictionary of library terms: E. I. Shamurin, *Slovar Knigovedcheskikh Terminov* (Moscow: Sovetskaya Rossiia, 1958), p.277.

³ American citizens using Soviet libraries report that copies of the *New York Times* are readily made available to them upon request.

open at 8 a.m. or 9 a.m. and stay open until 11:00 p.m. every day of the week, excepting five holidays during the year.

All services to which readers are entitled are of course free. The frequency with which this fact was proudly pointed out to the delegation, together with several specific questions about American public libraries, suggested that some Soviet librarians, especially in the smaller and less-sophisticated communities, believe that American public libraries are not free. Incidentally, Soviet libraries, unlike most American libraries, do not charge fines for overdue books. An earlier experiment with fines has been abandoned. Instead, recalcitrant readers may now have their privileges suspended. But the reader is required to pay for lost books or to supply a replacement.

Readers in all types of libraries must be registered and have library cards. At one small mass library, for example, the reader's card is a paper form ($5\frac{1}{2} \times 6$ inches). On one side there is space for the reader's name, address, nationality, party membership, and so on. A record of books used is kept on the other side. The Ukrainian State Republic Library has separate forms for admission to the library and for the record of books used. Different admission cards are issued to students, research workers, and correspondence students—cards that identify the reading rooms that are open and the privileges that are due to each class of readers. The record of books used is kept in a 14-page booklet, $4 \times 5\frac{3}{4}$ inches. The first page contains the usual personal data; the other pages are lined for the circulation data. At this library, and at some others visited—especially children's and village libraries—these booklets are kept at the loan desk and comprise the library's record of books taken and returned.

The Kiev State University Library, on the other hand, uses borrowers' cards or folders, $3\frac{1}{2} \times 5\frac{1}{2}$ inches, with pockets inside each to receive the book cards of materials loaned to students. Name, address, nationality, party membership, and so on appear on the face of the folders. The folders for day students are filed by borrower's number; those for correspondence students by borrower's name. It seemed to the delegation that most, if not all, Soviet libraries had records of who reads what.

The circulation procedures in general seemed complex and inefficient to the American delegation. All processes are manual. The lending services of the larger libraries, moreover, are fragmented and specialized by classes of readers and types of reading rooms. The delegation felt that fewer, less-specialized lending stations could be organized, which would result in greater convenience to the readers and more economical use of staff time. Generally speaking, American libraries require no admission cards;



Open shelves adjoining the science and technology reading room,
Lenin Library, Moscow

some do not register readers at all. Fewer distinctions are drawn among classes of readers, and circulation services are centralized wherever possible. Among other advantages such centralization makes it possible to mechanize large quantities of work.

Statistics of library use—both reader visits and books loaned—are kept uniformly by all Soviet libraries. For comparative purposes these statistics need interpretation because of differences in Soviet and American practices. Some American libraries, but by no means all, keep attendance data of one kind or another for internal administrative purposes; the data are not reported nationally. These data are reported nationally in the Soviet Union. The statistics of books loaned present a special problem, because both countries report the data nationally, but the data are different.

Typically, the American library reports as "circulation" only books borrowed for home use; books used within the library are not counted. Indeed, they could not be counted because of the prevalence of free public access to large portions of the library stacks and the provision of reading areas in and among those stacks. The books do not pass through the hands of any library staff member who could count them, let alone identify the reader. The more restricted controlled nature of Soviet libraries enables Soviet librarians to report as "circulation" all books used both inside and outside the library. The announced Soviet policy of opening more shelves to free

access by readers might, it seemed to the delegation, lead to an acceptance by the Soviet library systems of less complete statistics.

It was clear to the delegation that the proportion of books used *within* the library, as compared with books charged out for home use, was greater in the Soviet Union than in the United States. American readers are less inclined to use the library reading rooms and prefer their own homes for settling down to enjoy good books. This fact might help to explain the larger number of readers in Soviet library reading rooms. Perhaps to some extent Soviet readers are allowed to take fewer books home; it is more likely that Soviet homes, crowded as they are known to be, are less conducive to comfortable reading. In any case, Soviet statistics of circulation should be understood to include nearly all book use, inside as well as outside the library, and also a larger proportion of inside (i.e., in the library) use than is usual in American libraries.

But whatever the statistics or the rules of their interpretation, the delegation was impressed by the numbers of Soviet readers—no matter where they get their books or where they read them.

REFERENCE AND BIBLIOGRAPHICAL SERVICES

Most of the Soviet libraries visited by the delegation have well-developed reference and bibliographic services. All libraries feature a Bibliography Department (sometimes called Reference and Bibliography Department or Bibliographic Reference Department) that typically bears responsibility for (1) instructing readers in the use of the library and helping them to find the books they need; (2) the compilation of bibliographies and reading lists; and often (3) the preparation of book displays. The trained staff members who work directly with the public are called "bibliographers," a designation of rank for librarians in the higher echelons of the Soviet library profession.⁴

Reference work, as such, means only the supplying of bibliographic references or assistance to readers in finding references. Factual information of a nonbibliographic nature is not usually provided by the library staff. The Reference and Bibliography Department of the Lenin Library, for example, looks up books by author for the reader (a recently established public author catalog is incomplete), finds materials on subjects, and helps readers to compile their own lists. Over 28,000 previously compiled subject lists are kept on file for future use. The Bibliographic Reference

⁴ As a symbol of rank, this title of "bibliographer" is also carried by senior librarians who do not work with the public. It is bestowed especially upon those with university education.

Department of the Saltykov-Shchedrin Library considers its main purpose to be assistance to readers in the reading rooms. In addition to bibliographic questions answered in person, many written requests are answered by mail. The Department also selects reference and bibliographic works for the reading room collections, teaches readers how to use bibliographies, and acquaints readers with the contents of books and of the library.

Statistics of bibliographic reference services are systematically kept by all libraries. At one university library the delegation learned that records were kept in a ledger which was lined for a serial number, the name of the reader, the subject of the question, the source from which answered, and the signature of the bibliographer. (The delegation was not told whether searches for call numbers in author catalogs closed to the public were included.) The resulting statistics, being more narrowly defined than "reference" statistics in American libraries, appear to be useful.

When the Soviet delegation began its visits to American libraries, the members were incredulous about the lack of "reference" statistics in the United States, and their American hosts were equally incredulous about the importance attached to these statistics by the Soviets. What neither understood was that they were talking about different things. The Americans were talking about a much wider range of reference (i.e., information) services that could not be totaled statistically; the Soviets were talking about a specific kind of service that could—the number of bibliographic references supplied to readers.

Of bibliographies and reading lists, there is currently a great outpouring from libraries of every kind. Libraries everywhere are enjoined to produce more and better book lists and reading guides as an element in the improvement of education throughout the country. Many of these lists emanate from the methodological departments⁵ of the key libraries in the various library networks; they are passed down and widely used by the smaller libraries. Many others are produced by the bibliography departments of individual libraries for their own use.

A variety of goals is served by these lists. Some are cultural: they promote reading in literature, the arts, and history, including local history. Others are social and political: they help people to become loyal citizens. Still others, perhaps the largest group of all, are technical: they help to make people useful. Great stress is laid on such subjects as agriculture, the trades, and the professions—all subjects that concern the increase of production. A striking title seen by the delegation, for example, was roughly translated,

⁵See "Centralized Guidance and Assistance," p.112.

"In the Shortest Possible Time To Catch Up with and Surpass the U.S.A.; Methodical Bibliographic Materials for the Aid of Librarians in Working among Cattle Breeders." The Kalinin Oblast Library is stressing lists of books and articles about its own region, especially books by local authors about the methods by which they have excelled in meeting the economic goals of the Soviet regime. Even a small trade-union library was found to be compiling its own local reading lists, in addition to using the more general lists supplied by the methodological centers.

The bibliographical activities of the mass libraries are impressive. Their bibliographies appear in various formats, from two- or four-page leaflets to twenty- or thirty-page lists. Many have colorful and attractive covers. All are intended to appeal to the ordinary citizen, to stir up his interest to read, and to induce him to use the library. Some of the bibliographies are tied in with educational programs provided the readers. For example, the invitation to a lecture at a library will often contain a list of a half-dozen titles on the same topic as the scheduled lecture.

Perhaps the best way to convey the nature and quantity of such lists is to describe here the leaflets which were given to the group at one library—the Kalinin Oblast Library. There were twenty-six of these, published by the Library between 1958 and 1961. The percentage of total output represented by this collection is unknown, though the delegation felt that it was but a small sample. These lists vary in size from single sheets printed on both sides to brochures containing about twelve pages. Two of them are 6 x 9 inches; two are 4 x 5 5/8 inches; the remainder average about 3½ x 7 3/4 inches. (The latter format seems to be most commonly used throughout the USSR for this type of reading list.) Each item listed is annotated, often voluminously.

The titles of these reading lists produced by the Kalinin Oblast Library are:

We Use All Our Reserves for Increasing the Production of
Livestock

Let Us Increase the Cultivation of Land

For Bumper Harvests in Kalinin Oblast

The Latest Achievements of Soviet Chemistry

Chemistry and the Progress of Technology

A. P. Borodin [composer]

S. D. Drozhzhin [peasant poet of the nineteenth century]

V. Gaganova, A Heroine of Socialist Labor [notable
speed-up worker in a textile factory]

B. Polevoi [Soviet journalist and writer]

Ivan Ryabov [Soviet literary critic and publicist]

V. I. Simakov [collector of Russian folk songs]
M. P. Musorgskii [composer]
N. A. Rimskii-Korsakov [composer]
P. I. Chaikovskii [composer]
M. E. Saltykov-Shchedrin in Tver [Tver is the former
name of Kalinin; Saltykov-Shchedrin was a Russian
satirist of the nineteenth century]
What To Read about the Komsomols in Kalinin Oblast
Chaika [young partisan heroine in the last war]
A. S. Dargomyzhskii [composer]
M. I. Glinka [composer]
Communism and Technological Progress
Medal Bearers of the Seven-Year Plan of Our Oblast
[books and pamphlets about the achievements of
outstanding workers and farmers in Kalinin Oblast,
e.g., the collective-farm girl who has raised her
quota of pigs to be fed to 500]
Automation: The Wings of the Seven-Year Plan
The Achievements of Science in the Service of Techno-
logical Progress
Lenin
What the Club Worker Should Read
The Librarian's Aid [list of books and articles on
library service]

These lists were printed in editions varying from 1,000 to 5,000 copies. The average number of titles per list was about ten; the range from three to forty-two items.

There is no doubt about the effectiveness of these reading lists for the common citizen or about their value, given the objectives set for libraries by the Soviet government. Whether or not American librarians have something to learn from the Russians in this field, and whether or not the Russians are ahead of us in the production of reading lists aimed at the general public, are questions which cannot be answered within the perspectives of librarianship as narrowly conceived. They can be answered only in terms of each nation's goals and immediate problems. Both the stated goals of the United States and the USSR and their immediate problems differ widely. Soviet goals are straightforward, relatively simple, and easy to propagandize because they are formulated and interpreted by central authority which permits no competing or deviant doctrine. The Soviet Union is still faced with educating millions of newly literate peasants and non-Russian minority peoples in the ways of the twentieth century in general and of the USSR in particular.

One of the readers' services that the delegation found most interesting was the display of new library acquisitions in Soviet libraries. Nearly all libraries visited—again, the uniformity of Soviet practices was striking—showed all new acquisitions, often in special rooms, for one week before sending them on to their permanent locations. In the larger libraries as many as 1,000 books per week are so displayed. Some libraries, such as the Lenin Library, exhibit the catalog cards with the books. In some the books are displayed in glass-enclosed cabinets, although staff members can remove them upon request for examination. In other libraries they are openly displayed on shelves or tables. Readers are encouraged to examine the books and to make reservations for them. These displays attract the interest of many readers. American libraries have always had new-book shelves in one degree or another, but the delegation had rarely seen so complete and effective a job done as in the Soviet Union.

Soviet libraries are full of book exhibits of all kinds. Being well attuned to national goals, they respond energetically to every opportunity to encourage reading that supports those goals. Yuri Gagarin had completed his orbit shortly before the delegation visited the USSR. Every library, large or small, celebrated this achievement with some kind of exhibit. The Soviet Union was also observing the centennial of Tagore, the great Indian poet. Extensive displays of pictures, biographies, and the writings of Tagore were found in many libraries. There were other exhibits on such topics as "Foreign Writers in the Fight for Peace," "Your Friends Abroad," the imminent meeting of the XXII Congress of the Communist Party, and "Do It Yourself" projects.

A number of exhibits were strictly political, such as those denouncing Western colonialism and predicting eventual Socialist or Communist victory in the Congo and Cuba. The achievements of the Soviet regime, the ways in which Soviet citizens can contribute more effectively to the regime, and the friendly interest and support of other peoples of the world were recurring favorite themes. Indeed, the simultaneous appearance of exhibits on the same specific topics in widely separated parts of the country exemplified the high degree of library cooperation with, or participation in, Soviet national plans.

Soviet goals are undoubtedly well served by these ubiquitous, uniform exhibits. The American delegation felt, however, that the exhibits could be more effective if done with greater individuality and artistry. The typical exhibit, from Moscow to Samarkand, consisted of one or more pictures surrounded by slogans over a series of shallow, glassed display cases crowded with scores, sometimes hundreds, of overlapping books and pamphlets. Sometimes the

delegation felt that an exhibition meant the unselective display of every book that the library or the reading room owned on the subject. There was little attempt to discriminate, to feature outstanding works, or to open books to especially attractive pages or illustrations. Rarely was artistic ingenuity evident, despite the fact that the Soviet Union excels in other fields of artistic endeavor. The delegation was impressed by the widespread use of book displays as a national policy, but thought that the further encouragement of local talent in the choice and artistry of displays would produce more varied and attractive results.

There are other readers' services that deserve attention. Interlibrary loan, for example, is universally practiced in the Soviet Union. The system of domestic interlibrary loans is well developed; that of international interlibrary loans to and from Western countries, especially the United States, needs further development. As indicated on page 48, international interlibrary loan is quite a recent concept in the USSR itself, and librarians in the United States consequently are not generally familiar with Soviet interest in developing it. Soviet librarians in the major libraries indicated to the delegation that they were able and eager to engage in interlibrary lending with United States libraries, but reported that they had received very few requests for such loans from the United States. The delegation was given several copies of the Decree of the Ministry of Culture of October 31, 1955, which established the position of the Soviet library system regarding international interlibrary loans. A translation of its text can be found in Horecky's book.⁶

Further testimony to the eagerness of Soviet librarians to lend internationally is their willingness, often expressed, to accept and to send microfilm copies instead of original volumes. This represents a considerable concession, for the delegation found even more resistance to the use of microfilms in the USSR than is encountered in the United States.⁷ Moreover, with the exception of the Lenin Library, no library in the USSR is adequately equipped with photographic apparatus to supply microfilm copies on anything more than a modest scale. For that reason Moscow University Library, for example, prefers to send negatives, its microfilming facilities being so limited that it does not want to produce both negative and positive copies. Many Soviet research libraries are not equipped to supply

⁶ Horecky, p.35-36.

⁷ A staff member of one Soviet research library told the delegation that the American research library policy of not lending periodical volumes is a "bad habit" and that the substitution of microfilm is no remedy.

even negative microfilm copies. Every Soviet librarian with whom the matter was discussed said that the receipt of positive microfilm copies from United States libraries would be entirely satisfactory.

Other special services to readers include the supplying of translations of foreign works, apparently involving production of special translations if no copy of an already completed translation is available. How widespread this service is could not be determined. It was the impression of the delegation that such services were largely limited to scientists and engineers.

CULTURAL ACTIVITIES AND LIBRARY COUNCILS

The efforts of Soviet libraries to attract readers and to interest them in books and related cultural activities go far beyond book exhibits and reading lists. The mass libraries have especially strong book promotion programs. Close relationships are stimulated between the library and the reader. Community needs and the reading interests of individuals are studied. The library functions as a peoples' "university of culture."

Several libraries that were visited by the delegation offered formally organized adult education courses; some even retained volunteer faculties of literature and arts. The students at one library were factory workers who met in the library weekly over a two-year period. Most libraries offer lectures on technical subjects, book reviews and discussion, author nights (often with the author present), foreign language classes, and concerts. No matter how inadequate the library building, some kind of meeting place is always improvised. When audiences overflow the library, they can always move to the local house of culture.

Children's libraries have equally active community programs. The Lenin Library and the Pushkin Central Children's Library in Leningrad offer storytelling, lectures, and talks by writers and painters for children—all adapted to the age level of the audience. The librarians go to the schools to talk about books and to discuss the children's reading with the teachers. Forthcoming programs are publicized in posters, newspapers, radio, and TV.

Records of reading habits of both adults and children are often kept, presumably to help librarians guide and advise readers. In many libraries individual readers' folders are kept on file, listing every book borrowed. Some libraries meticulously record not only the title of every book used by each reader, but also how often and how well he reads and what he likes best.

A universal method of engaging the interest and participation of readers in library affairs is the library council. These councils are found in all types of libraries—mass, academy, university, and special. In mass libraries, they consist typically of a group of readers, often a fairly large group, that both advises the library and helps with its work on a part-time volunteer basis. Volunteer social work seems to be expected of all Soviet citizens; the library is one of the more desirable places where this work can be done.

At the Moscow City Library, for example, the library council consists of fifteen citizens elected at annual meetings of the readers (100-150 readers attend). Some of the council members are retired; some are housewives. Others are trade-union representatives, doctors, farmers, laborers, teachers, or university professors. They help the library to popularize new literature among the readers; they participate in book selection (often they are specialists); they arrange parties and set up exhibits; they consider letters and criticisms of readers; to some extent they even help with cataloging and other routine library work. Instances were noted of council members knocking on the doors of people in the community to solicit new or intensified interest in books and reading.

The councils of research libraries are similar in nature and purpose, except that the members do not engage in social work. The Saltykov-Shchedrin Library has an advisory council of twenty-six members consisting of eight library department heads and eighteen scholarly readers. The appointments are made by the library director and confirmed by the Ministry of Culture of the RSFSR. Moscow University Library has an advisory Scientific Council of twenty faculty members and four library staff members, who meet quarterly to discuss library problems and plans. In some universities that have mass education programs, such as Samarkand State University, library council members conduct book discussions.

Chapter V

Technical Services

CLASSIFICATION

The larger Soviet libraries, like those in most other parts of the world, use fixed location systems¹ for the arrangement of books in the main stacks; these stacks are usually closed to readers. Relative location systems² are used for open-shelf collections, such as auxiliary reading room and popular circulating collections. The systematic approach to the library as a whole is provided by a classified catalog, the library's "classification" being the system for arranging not books on the shelves but cards in the catalog. One major exception is Kiev State University Library, where all but oversized books are also classified on the shelves.

As in other countries, a variety of unique classification systems have been developed over the years for the catalogs of the larger Soviet libraries. Some of them were originally modeled after that of the Lenin Library but have undergone extensive local adaptations.

A Soviet adaptation of Dewey's Decimal Classification was found to be widely applied in large libraries to the arrangement of books on open shelves in auxiliary reading room collections. This Soviet "Dewey" is even more widely used for the relative location of books on open-access shelves of mass libraries. The

¹ The call numbers indicate the room and the shelf where the book is permanently located or "fixed."

² The call numbers indicate the location of each book in relation to neighboring books; the locations on the shelves are not fixed.

classification is never referred to as "Dewey"; often it is simply called the "International Decimal." But it is, nevertheless, a derivative from Dewey.

A new standard classification is now being compiled cooperatively by the Lenin Library, the All-Union Book Chamber, the Academy of Sciences Library, and the Saltykov-Shchedrin Library. This classification, the delegation understood, was being designed primarily for use in the classified catalogs of the larger libraries. The schedules for chemistry and biology have been finished; the one for chemistry has been published.³ Work is now progressing on those for physics, mathematics, agriculture, and forestry. Much time, understandably, is required to reach agreement on any schedule by four cooperating institutions.

In discussing this new standard classification with the staffs of research libraries in several parts of the Soviet Union, the delegation learned that all were awaiting its completion with interest; that all would try to adopt its principles in some degree; but that few really expected to recatalog their entire libraries in order to apply it *in toto*. The manner and degree in which the system could become a new standard classification for the systematic catalogs of all Soviet libraries were not clear to the delegation.

Meanwhile, the All-Union Book Chamber is publishing a new edition of the Universal Decimal Classification which will run to 1,280 pages. In Russia the UDC is rather widely used for the sciences; for the humanities, hardly at all. The Library of Congress classification has been tried unsuccessfully. Soviet librarians prefer the UDC to Dewey in large classified catalogs, even though the Soviet Dewey is popular for shelf classification in mass libraries.

CATALOGING

The dictionary form of library catalog is rarely used in the Soviet Union. As indicated above, the subject approach to the collections of any large library is provided by a systematic or classified catalog; a separate alphabetical catalog provides the author approach. The classified catalog is open to the public; the author catalog is usually accessible only to the library staff, who look up specific authors and titles for the reader. In addition to the general catalogs, the larger libraries maintain a complex variety

³ Moscow, Publichnaia Biblioteka [Library of Congress corporate entry for Lenin Library], *Bibliotечно-Bibliograficheskaya Klassifikatsiya: Tablitsy dlia Nauchnykh Bibliotek*, Vyp. 4, G: *Khimicheskie Nauki* (Moscow, 1960). 118p.

of special catalogs of books in different languages, published in different places, or available to different readers. The Lenin Library, for example, is said to have more than 400 catalogs containing over 35 million cards. The delegation was very much interested in the way in which the cards for books printed in different kinds of characters (e.g., Arabic, Chinese, Bengali, and Hindi) were filed sequentially, without transliteration, behind the cards for Russian books under each subject heading in the main classified catalogs, instead of being organized into separate linguistic catalogs. But in the author catalogs separate files were used for books in different language groups.

The Ukrainian State Republic Library offers an example of the kinds of catalogs that are employed. In addition to the general classified catalogs in this Library, there are separate catalogs for magazine and newspaper articles. The closed general author catalog is supplemented by special public author catalogs in the loan department and the main reading room. The foreign literature and the patent departments also maintain separate catalogs, and the bibliography department compiles a systematic catalog of analytics for magazine articles. The classified catalogs also contain many analytics of periodical articles.

PRINTED CATALOG CARD SERVICES

The principal source of printed catalog cards is the All-Union Book Chamber, which receives copies of all books published in the Soviet Union in the Russian language and produces and distributes sets of catalog cards for each title. (Printed cards for non-Russian books published in the Soviet Union—that is, in the non-Russian languages of the Soviet Union—are issued by the Book Chambers of the constituent republics of the USSR.) The form and content of the cards are similar to those of the Library of Congress printed cards, and the quality of the cataloging appears to be high.

These cards are very widely used by libraries throughout the Soviet Union.⁴ Unlike Library of Congress cards, they are not sold individually by title or card number; they are issued in thirty-four series⁵ to which libraries may subscribe. A library typically

⁴ An interesting account of the use made of the All-Union Book Chamber's card series is found in: A. E. Rabin, *Ispolzovanie Pechatnykh Kartochek Vsesoyuznoi Knizhnoi Palaty (po opytu nekotorykh bibliotek Leningrada)* [*Utilization of the Printed Cards of the All-Union Book Chamber (according to the experience of certain libraries in Leningrad)*] (Moscow: Publishing House of the All-Union Book Chamber, 1960). 68p.

⁵ The printed catalog card services of the All-Union Book Chamber (as well as several other series of cards) are described in some detail in Horecky, p.49-55, and in M. J. Ruggles and Vaclav Mostecky, *Russian and*



Lenin Library

Readers' catalog card files in the new building of the Lenin Library, Moscow

subscribes to as many sets of the cards as it can normally use, types its own additional copies as needed, and saves leftover copies for later use as replacements. The Ukrainian State Republic Library, for example, subscribes to seven sets of printed cards and finds it necessary to type some additional copies. The Leningrad State University Library subscribes to twelve sets for use in its various catalogs. The cards are received daily in unsorted packages. Upon receipt of each set one copy is filed by author, the rest by card number. The author file enables the catalogers to find the card that matches a particular book, when received, and to locate the stock of cards for that book by number. It should be noted that at this library, at least, the set of cards arrives before the book, at least most of the time.

The delegation encountered conflicting evidence about the promptness with which libraries receive the cards from the All-Union Book Chamber. The Director of the Book Chamber himself declared that one trouble with the present system had been delay in the issuance of some cards. On the other hand, staff members of several major libraries, such as Kiev State University Library, asserted that the printed cards were regularly received from two or three days to a week *before* the corresponding books arrived from the Book Collectors. The discrepancy in evidence is probably due to a confusion between two widely differing series of cards issued by the Book Chamber.

East European Publications in the Libraries of the United States (New York: Columbia Univ. Pr., 1960), p.129-32, 370-72. The latter contains numerous photocopies of various types of printed cards produced in the Soviet Union. Detailed descriptions of the Book Chamber's card series, together with conditions and price of subscriptions, are announced annually in *Pechatnye Kartochki Vsesoiuznoi Knizhnoi Palaty*, a prospectus of the All-Union Book Chamber.

In addition to the comprehensive sets of cards referred to above, the Book Chamber also issues a separate series of annotated cards intended for the smaller libraries. These are prepared for selected titles and represent only about 20 per cent of the total number of books published. The book selection and annotations are performed by the Lenin Library, whose staff is assisted in both operations by outside experts in various fields. These annotated cards are printed and sent regularly by the Book Chamber to over 10,000 libraries. The time consumed in selecting the titles and in annotating them results in delays in issuing these cards.

A more general criticism of the present system is the waste in subscribing to *all* cards (indeed, multiple sets of all cards) in broadly defined series, even though many of the corresponding books may never be selected for acquisition.

In fitting the printed cards into their local catalogs, Soviet librarians encounter the same array of problems as do American librarians. Classification numbers must be adapted, forms of entry modified, subtitles changed, and so on. Local variations in the rules of cataloging and in the classification schedules seem to reduce the economies of centralized cataloging in about the same degree as in the United States. The printed card services of the two countries differ in one important respect: cards appear to be available for a larger proportion of the books acquired by Soviet libraries than by American libraries. The Saltykov-Shchedrin Library, which is one of the largest and greatest of the research libraries, reports that 90 per cent of the Soviet (not just Russian) books it acquires are covered by cards printed by the Book Chambers.

Although a high degree of centralized cataloging of Soviet books has been achieved, the centralized cataloging of foreign books is less effective. Cards for foreign books are printed and sold by the Foreign Literature Library, which adds annotations to all cards and also transliterates the fiction titles. Other libraries are required to send to the Foreign Literature Library two copies of their catalog card for any foreign book received. Copies must be sent likewise to the Lenin Library, which also prints and sells cards for foreign acquisitions but without transliteration or annotation. Unfortunately, the delivery of these series of cards for foreign books is too slow to be of much help to the cataloging departments of the receiving libraries, such as the Leningrad State University, the Saltykov-Shchedrin, and the Academy of Science libraries. They therefore print or type their own cards for foreign acquisitions, even though they subscribe to the centralized series. A union card catalog of foreign books in 200 Soviet libraries is maintained by the Lenin Library.

A number of more specialized central card services is also available in the Soviet Union. The All-Union Book Chamber puts out an extensive series of cards for important newspaper articles, also a series for magazine articles on such subjects as medicine, biology, chemistry, and chemical technology. In the latter series 300-400 cards are issued per day; Universal Decimal Classification numbers will be added next year. Map cards printed by the Lenin Library can be purchased by other Soviet libraries. The Saltykov-Shchedrin Library is issuing cards for early Russian books. The amount of sheet-map cataloging done by Soviet libraries appears to be much greater than that done by United States libraries.

The Foreign Literature Library, in cooperation with the Institute of Scientific Information, publishes cards for many foreign periodical articles. Twenty-thousand titles in the humanities have been issued in 800,000 copies; 50,000 titles in the sciences have been issued in 25 million copies. Cards in the natural sciences are distributed ten times each year.

Although the quality of the cataloging that goes into these printed card services seems excellent, that of the card stock was seriously questioned by the American delegation. The delegation also noted that the size of catalog cards had not yet been fully standardized throughout the Soviet Union. For example, three different sizes were found in a small group of cards from different republics, shown at the All-Union Book Chamber as samples of experiments in cataloging-in-source.

Mr. William J. Barrow of Richmond, Virginia, the well-known expert on paper, kindly agreed to test some Soviet catalog cards brought back by the delegation. Printed cards issued by nine republic book chambers, widely separated geographically, were sent to Mr. Barrow. The sample was small, only eleven cards, but Mr. Barrow subjected them to tests designed to elicit the maximum information about their durability and longevity—i.e., how much handling they could endure at present and how long they might be expected to retain their properties before deteriorating chemically.

Briefly summarized, his findings showed the Soviet cards to be of extremely low quality in terms of both present strength and life expectancy. Eight of the eleven cards contained from 25 per cent to 80 per cent groundwood fibers (the content of newsprint), which deteriorate very rapidly. Seven of the cards also were found to be highly acid—another certain sign of a high rate of deterioration. The present strength of the entire set (measured by folding endurance) was almost shockingly low. The number of folds tolerated by the lowest quality of United States-produced card stock (from a sample of twenty-eight) which Barrow was testing was 30; the lowest of the Soviet sample was 3. The United States median was 502

folds; the Soviet median, 12. The highest number of folds in the United States sample was 1,129; in the Soviet sample, 35.⁶

Yet the numerous catalogs in Soviet libraries seen and fingered by the United States delegation seemed to be in entirely usable condition. The Soviet cards in use (many, of course, several years old), though unattractive because of lack of uniformity in size, roughness of surface, and gray color, showed none of the telltale yellowing at the edges or cracking or dog-earing which would be expected of cards of similar quality if used in United States libraries.

CATALOGING-IN-SOURCE

The American delegation was intensely interested in a large-scale experiment in cataloging-in-source now being conducted in the Soviet Union. This experiment, which appears to have been promoted by the Main Library Inspection office of the Ministry of Culture of the USSR, has several objectives: (1) to speed up the delivery of printed catalog cards; (2) to reduce local cataloging costs; and (3) to enable libraries to receive with the books they acquire the specific catalog cards for those books. These objectives vary in importance in libraries of different sizes; the standard printed card services used by the larger libraries are actually very prompt; the annotated series used by the smaller libraries are late in receipt. All but the smaller libraries do benefit economically from the card services which have been in operation for many years. Objective (3) is the most important because it applies to all sizes and types of libraries.

The importance of receiving with books only those cards that fit the books derives largely from the present method of distributing printed cards only by subscription to broadly defined series, as described above. Very large libraries can subscribe economically to multiple sets of the entire comprehensive series and make effective use of a high proportion of the cards. Libraries of moderate size can benefit only from a smaller proportion of the comprehensive series of cards, depending upon their rate of acquisition of the books that are covered by the cards. Small mass libraries cannot afford to subscribe even to the highly selective, annotated card series.⁷

⁶ The data concerning United States card stock were published in Library Technology Project, *Permanence and Durability of Library Catalog Cards: A Study Conducted by W. J. Barrow for the Library Technology Project* ("LTP Publications," No. 3 [Chicago: American Library Association, 1961]).

⁷ So the delegation was told by some librarians in these smaller libraries. But the prices of the annotated series seemed reasonable. They are

The present method of distributing the printed cards, therefore, works reasonably well for the larger libraries, but wastefulness increases and effectiveness decreases progressively for libraries with lesser resources. A great service would be performed, especially for the smaller libraries, if only the cards for the books that they actually acquire could be promptly delivered to them. Possibly, too, the complaints from smaller libraries about the present supply of annotated cards may arise from wide differences in selection between the experts at the Lenin Library, who choose the books to be cataloged and annotated, and the librarians who choose the books for their small libraries. Since the annotated card sets cover only 20 per cent of the total Russian-language book output, it would be remarkable if there were more than a small coincidence in choice.

The September Party Decree of 1959 instructed all publishing houses to organize a centralized system of classification and cataloging of books in order to distribute printed catalog cards with the books. The Lenin Library and the All-Union Book Chamber assumed central responsibility for instructing the publishing houses in cataloging techniques. By May, 1961, the experiment was well under way in various parts of the Soviet Union. Progress was being made, difficulties were being encountered, and opinions varied about the best methods and the likelihood of success.

The principal difficulty, as sensed by the American delegation and freely admitted by leading Soviet librarians, was the control of quality and uniformity of cataloging, in what would be actually a highly *decentralized* system, by agencies that have no experience and may have no interest in cataloging. Unlike the American experiment, in which advance copy from the publishers was cataloged centrally at the Library of Congress with card copy returned to the publishers, the Soviets are trying to get the books cataloged locally by the individual publishers. In practice, a variety of local procedures are being studied—procedures that involve the use of local library competence to help the publishers.

In Moscow and Leningrad, for example, several key libraries are sending their own staff members to the publishing houses to do the cataloging there. A similar pattern is being tried in Latvia and Estonia. At Kiev, the Ukrainian State Republic Library is now receiving galley proof from seventeen local publishers, doing the cataloging at the library and sending card copy back to the publishers with the galley proofs. During the five-month period preceding the

issued in four series, each differently priced, as follows:

- | | |
|--|--------------------------|
| 1. For raion ("county") libraries | 15 (new) rubles annually |
| 2. For city libraries | 20 (new) rubles annually |
| 3. For village libraries | 6 (new) rubles annually |
| 4. For children's and school libraries | 6 (new) rubles annually |

One new ruble is approximately equivalent to one United States dollar.

visit of the American delegation, 1,350 titles had been so processed for the publishers. The library maintains control of the choice and form of entry by means of authority files.

The Uzbek State Library at Tashkent is similarly undertaking for the publishers the cataloging of all books published in Uzbekistan, whether in the Russian or in the Uzbek language. In this instance the cataloging is done from the manuscripts, which are supplied by the publishers and are returned, with card copy, to the publishers. Not only are classification and author numbers supplied with the descriptive copy but also annotations. Beginning July 1, 1961, all books published in Uzbekistan were to have been distributed with two printed catalog cards in each book and with the text of the card, including classification and author numbers, also printed on the verso of the title page, together with the annotation.

It appeared to the delegation that one of the ways in which the experiment might be made to work was by assigning the cataloging work not to the publishers but to a network of competent, well-staffed, local or regional libraries. Nevertheless, since cataloging is not an exact science, there is doubt whether even the most competent catalogers in many widely separated areas of the country could produce a uniform product—that is, could achieve without common authority files the degree of consistency in choice and forms of entry that would enable the cards from one locality to be interfiled with cards from other localities without extensive revision and loss of standardization. The present system of centralized cataloging by the Book Chambers and major research libraries does, of course, insure a uniform product of high quality.

The delegation expressed to Soviet librarians its concern over the possibility that the USSR, having developed high competence in the Book Chambers and libraries that now provide centralized card services and having standardized cataloging methods to an admirable degree, might now be in danger of setting aside these achievements. The present experiment, if continued, would lead to the discontinuation of the present card services of both the All-Union Book Chamber and the Lenin Library.

Since the American delegates had recently undergone an experiment with "cataloging-in-source," the Soviet hosts were particularly interested in asking for advice, and the delegates complied by offering several suggestions. Actually, the basic problem which the Soviets are trying to solve is not the production of catalog cards, but their more efficient distribution by titles of books actually acquired by libraries of all kinds and sizes. It seems at least possible that the existing benefits of centralized cataloging by the Book Chambers might be continued; that in the future advance copy might be supplied to them by the publishers even earlier than they now are; and that a new system of automatic card distribution with

individual copies of books might be worked out through the Book Collectors who now distribute the books. The publishers need not necessarily be involved at all in the processes of cataloging or the production of catalog cards. Simultaneous orders for cards supplied by the Book Chambers and for books supplied by the publishers might be placed by the Book Collectors. The Book Collectors might then be able to match the cards with the books and supply both together to the libraries.

This suggestion does not take into account the smaller libraries' need for annotations. It is probably not feasible for the Book Chambers, especially the All-Union Book Chamber, to prepare annotations sufficiently promptly to meet the schedule suggested above. If so, then the publishers could continue, as now planned, to write the annotations and print them on the verso of the title pages. There is no necessary connection between the catalog card and the annotation that requires both to be produced by the same agency or distributed by the same method.

If simplified catalog cards that bear annotations especially for small mass libraries should be confirmed as essential, a special, selected series of annotated cards—similar to those now centrally prepared by the Lenin Library and produced and distributed by the All-Union Book Chamber—might also be distributed through the Book Collectors with certain kinds of books. One type of card might be used for scholarly books, the other for popular books; or one type might be distributed to scholarly libraries, the other to mass libraries. Since this suggested method would not overcome the problem of selection of the cards needed, still another alternative might be tried. The Book Chambers could continue to produce unannotated cards for all books; the Book Collectors could bring cards and books together; and the publishers could supply with each book a removable slip (or several if desirable) containing the annotations. Librarians (or the Book Collectors) could then paste the annotations on the cards.

These are suggestions that might or might not be useful. In brief, they derive, first, from the practical problems of controlling the uniformity and quality of cataloging throughout a country by means of a decentralized system; second, from the risk that the expertism of existing centralized cataloging agencies—the very agencies that now insure uniformity and quality—might in the future be bypassed and unused; and, third, the possibility that a better solution to the problem for which the present experiment is intended might be a considerable improvement in the method of marketing and distributing the cards that are now produced by those central agencies.

The experiment of publisher cataloging is, of course, still in its early stages. Some Soviet librarians are enthusiastic, others

are skeptical. Many publishers are uninterested or reluctant. The staffs of the mass libraries are hopeful. The librarian at the village of Borispol, for example, was looking forward eagerly to receiving printed cards with all books acquired after May 26, 1961. The significance of the problem itself is widely recognized, and the Soviet library authorities are determined to solve it by one means or another. They feel, moreover, that they have a better chance of finding a satisfactory solution than do Americans, because their publishing houses, book distribution outlets, and libraries are all subject to state planning and control.

TECHNICAL PROCEDURES

The general organization of the technical services in Soviet libraries is much the same as in American libraries. Every library of any size has its acquisition, cataloging, and circulation departments, as well as the usual sections, such as exchanges, interlibrary loans, and serials. The catalog department of the Ukrainian State Republic Library, as an example, divides its professional staff by subject fields and employs clerical workers for marking, pocketing, labeling, and so on.

The main difference observed by the American delegation was the continuing use by Soviet libraries of many outmoded and relatively inefficient technical procedures. The delegation often felt that the ways in which the everyday work of the library was done were unnecessarily costly and complicated.

The complexity of the circulation processes was noted in Chapter IV, "Readers' Services." It is true, of course, that some efforts are being made to simplify the lending methods, and in one library, again the Ukrainian State Republic Library, a self-charging system is being tried successfully for a popular, open-shelf collection of 117,000 books.

Accessioning seemed to the delegation especially in need of careful analysis and evaluation. The standard method, as observed in a number of Soviet libraries, is still the hand posting of every printer's unit in ledgers. One ledger is used for books and pamphlets, another for issues of periodicals. For each book or periodical issue the entry includes date, accession number, author and title, issue number, place of publication, name of publisher, price (books and binding kept separate), subject class, and method of acquisition (such as purchase or exchange). If a book is lost or discarded, this fact is later noted on the original entry. These ledgers serve as the official inventory of the book collections, and they form the basis for the statistics of holdings and acquisitions.

Similar accession registers were once commonly used in American libraries; most of them were discarded decades ago.

The shelf list is now regarded by many United States libraries as the official inventory of the collections, although one copy of a multiple order or processing form is often filed for a limited number of years after the book is acquired. Some American libraries no longer use accession numbers at all; they rely entirely on the call numbers for identification. The details of date of acquisition, cost, and source, even method of acquisition, are assumed to have no significant value to anybody, at least after a few years. Statistics consist simply of a net cumulative count of new materials as acquired or discarded. It has long since been demonstrated that even large research libraries can discontinue entirely the accession record, numbers, and process without loss of any essential information.

Many American libraries have also greatly simplified their procedures for handling serial publications by discontinuing the laborious recording of serial volumes in the main catalogs and shelf lists and by developing a specialized serial record as a semi-public supplement to the main catalogs. The main catalog cards for a serial refer the reader to the serial record for a list of volumes owned by the library. Soviet libraries still record all serial holdings in the main catalogs. The posting of frequently issued serials in the main catalogs is usually annual, although one major library was observed to post in its main catalog every serial, issue by issue, as received. Whereas one posting is sufficient in an American library with a central serial record, several postings (including the accession ledger) are still made in Soviet libraries.

In observing the internal processes of Soviet libraries, the delegation often felt that it was reliving American librarianship of thirty to forty years ago. It thought that Soviet librarians would be well advised to restudy the purpose and efficiency of many processes, to analyze work methods, to eliminate unnecessary operations and duplicate records, and to centralize similar procedures wherever possible. The same management techniques that are used to increase factory production are often applicable to library work.

The delegation concluded that Soviet librarianship might benefit from a more intensive study of methods and processes developed in other countries. A great deal of information is readily available in published sources. The Foreign Literature Library has a Foreign Library Literature Section that collects, indexes, and annotates foreign periodicals on librarianship and compiles bibliographies of those periodicals, but the delegation found little evidence that important information in these periodicals was disseminated among or used by Soviet libraries. The varieties of experimentation that may be found in different libraries of many Western countries would be of interest to Soviet librarians. The Dutch, the Danish, and the Swedish librarians, for example, are learning much that is of great value to Soviet and American librarians alike.

Chapter VI

Buildings and Equipment

EXISTING BUILDINGS

Although the Soviet Union is rapidly building its library collections and extending its library services to every village throughout the land, the housing of the libraries is still far from adequate. Many existing buildings, even those that were originally designed for library purposes, are both antiquated and poorly maintained. A much larger number of buildings, especially those occupied by mass libraries, are crude adaptations of structures designed for other purposes. They are crowded, inconveniently arranged, and frequently cluttered and unpleasant. Lighting is weak, and such furnishings as catalog cases are far below American standards. Poor materials and construction often discourage proper maintenance. Some buildings, such as that of the Uzbek State Library at Tashkent, are critical fire hazards.

A few buildings were observed, on the other hand, to be very neat and orderly. Notable examples were the district library (Saltykov-Shchedrin Library)¹ and the Ukrainian State Republic Library, both at Kiev. The only finished new buildings visited were those of the Lenin Library and the Moscow University Library.

The explanation for the poor condition of most existing library structures is simple. The Soviet Union suffered terribly during World War II; all public buildings in many communities were

¹Not to be confused with the Leningrad Public Library which bears the same name.

destroyed. Since the War, housing has been one of the greatest problems; prodigious housing developments have taken priority over buildings for educational and cultural purposes. High priorities have also gone to industrial construction and armament. Only now are the Soviets arriving at the point where serious attention is finally being turned to new buildings for libraries.

PLANS FOR NEW LIBRARY BUILDINGS

In contrast to existing library buildings is the image of future buildings as enthusiastically described by several Soviet librarians. The need was stated in the October, 1959, Party Decree, which gave the responsible local organizations deadlines of two or three years to analyze and solve the material problems of libraries and "to provide libraries with suitable fully equipped and furnished premises."² The decree also "forbade government agencies and organizations to appropriate library facilities for their own use, instructed them to transfer libraries now housed in unsuitable premises into vacated quarters, and ordered that new settlements, cities, and clubs in workers' settlements and villages be planned with consideration of space for public libraries." It may be surmised that many years will be required to achieve substantial general improvement in library building conditions, but a determined, nationwide program is now in progress.

The Foreign Literature Library already has a new building under construction. This building will contain twelve reading rooms and house 5 million book units. Its completion is scheduled for 1963. By 1964 the All-Union Book Chamber hopes to finish a complex of four new buildings designed to accommodate twenty-five years of growth. The basic plan is now complete, and money has been allocated for the working drawings. The first building of eight floors will house the editorial offices and catalogs; the second of eighteen floors will consist of bookstacks; the third of four floors will contain exhibits; and the fourth of seven floors will be the printing plant. The Lenin Library is renovating its main stack. Kiev State University is designing a new campus, which will include a new library. New buildings, including a library, are now being constructed at Tashkent State University. The Book Chamber of the Uzbek SSR was moving to a new building when the delegation visited Tashkent.

At these and many other places new buildings, remodeled buildings, and additions to older buildings at various stages of

²Victor Fedai, "Expansion of Library Service in the USSR," *ALA Bulletin*, 54:380 (May, 1960).

planning were frequently discussed. Stack additions were nearing completion at several places. Small mass libraries were being provided in residential building projects, especially where whole districts, serving 500,000-800,000 people, were planned as a unit with provision for bookstores and libraries along with schools, playgrounds, and markets. The delegates admired a striking phenomenon: bookstores and libraries in housing developments were in operation before the streets and sidewalks had been put in.

But in viewing all this activity, the delegation at times found cause to question the quality of the planning even for new library buildings. The design, for example, of the Lenin Library leaves much to be desired. A new bookstack in Tashkent is remarkably crude. At the Ukrainian State Republic Library, it was learned that the prewar building, having been totally destroyed, had been rebuilt exactly as before instead of along modern, more efficient lines.

Meanwhile, Soviet libraries continue to build their book collections and improve their services, regardless of the physical conditions under which they work. No apology is heard; the book and the reader come first.

MECHANICAL EQUIPMENT AND DEVICES

The delegation learned little about the thinking and planning in the Soviet Union with respect to conventional mechanization of library procedures (advanced mechanization and automation will be discussed in Chapter VII). One reason is the fact that Soviet interest in improved conventional techniques is not centered in a single institution—except possibly the Mechanization Group of the Department of Architecture, Construction, and Equipment of Libraries of the Lenin Library—and the manner in which the visits of the delegation were organized necessarily required an institutional, rather than a topical, arrangement of interviews. Parenthetically, the delegation was told that the Mechanization Group at the Lenin Library was staffed by less than a half-dozen persons, who were not highly qualified specialists in engineering and had no facilities for experimental or developmental work.

Mechanization can perhaps be discussed most usefully if divided into three aspects: (1) the equipment and devices being used; (2) those in development; and (3) those being planned and subject to speculation.

In general, Soviet libraries appeared to be at the level of technology which United States libraries reached forty to fifty years ago. Even typewriters were infrequently seen throughout the delegation's visit. The University of Kiev Library had only three

typists on its entire staff. All the catalog cards for Chinese publications in most Soviet libraries are inscribed by hand. Not even the simplest mechanical device for book charging was seen in any library. All the record-keeping that was shown was handwritten. The lack of mechanical devices in this field was particularly striking in view of the voluminous records being kept. American librarians, even with the mechanization available to them, would find the keeping of such detailed records too burdensome; to keep them by hand would be regarded as even more wasteful.

One member of the delegation, with a speaking acquaintance with reproducing techniques, was fascinated by a process used at the Library of Foreign Literature—a process he had never seen before. Though somewhat crude, it was quite effective. The member obtained as much detailed information about it as possible. On returning to the United States, he consulted an expert on lithography and was told that what he had seen was the albumen dichromate method of sensitizing lithographic plates by use of a whirler—a method used in the United States before the last war, but long ago superseded by presensitized offset plates produced centrally in factories. The automatized lithographic-printing equipment in the same Library, however, was impressive. It was modern and manufactured in Czechoslovakia.³

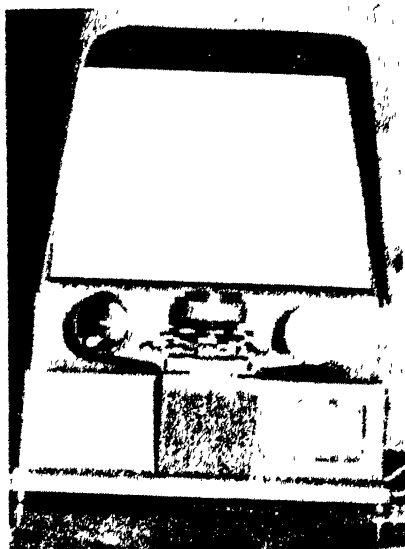
One outstanding advance in mechanization in Soviet libraries is the microfilming equipment at the Lenin Library. Eugene Power, president of University Microfilms, Inc., visited the Lenin Library's Photographic Section about nine months before the present delegation did. His expert evaluation follows:

The Lenin State Library has a well developed, well equipped microfilm laboratory with twelve cameras, six of them of hybrid design utilizing an Eastman Kodak Microfile head, mast and lens; a copyboard and lights based on German design; and a book cradle of Russian design and manufacture.

The hybrid cameras mentioned above are capable of excellent work and with higher output than our own. The book cradle was arranged so that it would raise and lower under a glass and could be operated in single cycles or in repetitive cycles at any designated rate.⁴

³ These two machines, each capable of producing 5,000 copies per hour, were manufactured in Czechoslovakia by Romayor and bore the brand name "Zentoprinton No. 30."

⁴ Eugene Power, "Film from the Soviet Union a Practical Reality," *Microcosm* (house organ of University Microfilms, Inc., Ann Arbor, Mich.), 6, No. 4:4 (Winter, 1961).



Small microfilm reader—the
Mikrofol—Lenin Library, Moscow

The apparatus referred to by Mr. Power is designated as Model UDM2.⁵ There were seven of these devices in the Lenin Library's Photographic Section when the delegation visited it. The Library will soon possess four more. In addition the laboratory has two French, four German, and two United States microfilm cameras with associated mechanisms. The present capacity of the laboratory is 17 million frames a year. By 1964 a production rate of 25-30 million frames annually is planned.

Among the other outstanding characteristics of the UDM2, this apparatus automatically controls the amount of light required for each exposure. It also has a foolproof electric-eye system for preventing injury to a careless operator who, after turning a page, might not withdraw his hands before the cradle is mechanically raised to press the pages of the publication against the plate-glass table top. The UDM2 can photograph material up to 50 x 70 cm. in size.

Also impressive, though not superior to United States or Western European devices, are the microfilm reading machines at the Lenin Library. The Microfilm Reading Room has twenty-four readers available for public use, and it was reported that the Library had

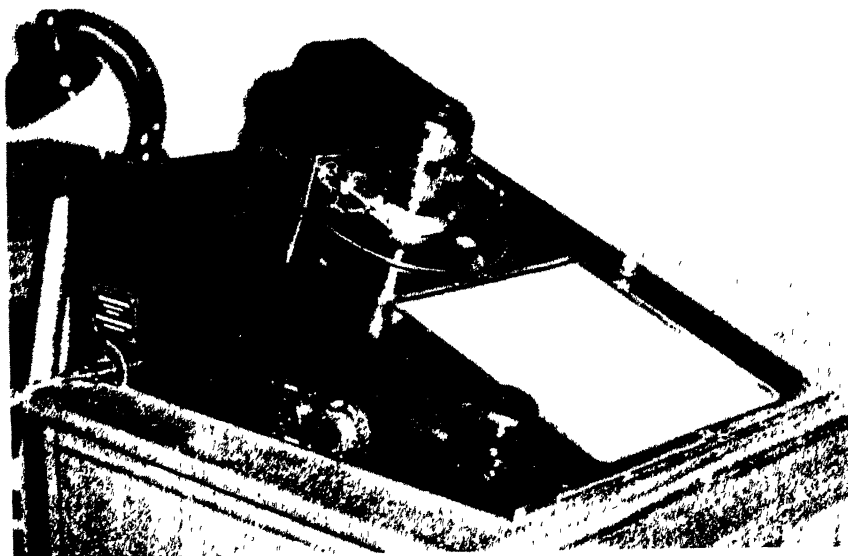
⁵The initials stand for: *Ustanovka dlia Mikrofolotokopirovaniia*. It is manufactured in Odessa by Kinap.

more than sixty readers in all. Two models are in use. The smaller, designated Type 5 AO-1 and named "Mikrofoto," was being manufactured, it was said, on a mass production basis for use throughout the USSR. Such manufacture and distribution must have been very recently initiated, for very few readers were seen in other libraries of the USSR.

A larger model of a microfilm reader, designated Type DIM, is also being used in the Lenin Library's Microfilm Reading Room. There are about ten of these devices, each built into a desk so that reading and taking notes are both convenient.

The delegation was not able to obtain precise specifications of these machines and therefore cannot compare them with readers manufactured outside the USSR. They tested them, however, with a strip of microfilm, and their opinion of both machines was that the legibility and resolution were of high quality and the mechanical features of film handling excellent.

Among the other types of hardware in which Soviet librarians are interested are book conveyers and lifts. Such equipment was seen at the Lenin Library and at the Moscow University Library, and its quality seemed to be quite satisfactory. No conveyers or lifts were seen in any of the other libraries visited. Soviet interest in this type of machinery is probably stimulated by the growing trend toward constructing entirely new buildings for the larger



Larger microfilm reader, Type DIM—built into desk—Lenin Library, Moscow

libraries. Soviet librarians are being foresighted in paying attention to equipment which has so important an influence on architectural planning. Librarians interested in applying modern technology are also talking about the use of electronic means for transmitting both bibliographical information and texts from publications. Apparently, no such equipment yet exists in any Soviet library.

Also discussed were calculating machines to handle the heavy load of statistics which burden all Soviet libraries. The delegates were not aware that calculators—either mechanical or electric—were in use in any Soviet library. The All-Union Book Chamber uses machine-sorted punched cards for handling the statistics of Soviet publications, much of which are published in the annual *Pechat' SSSR* (see page 25). The sorter, however, is not owned by the Chamber nor is it on its premises; the Chamber rents the services of a machine owned by a factory.

Some Soviet librarians are urging the employment of *malaia mekhanizatsiia* in libraries. This term, for which English has no equivalent (though it should, for it would be a convenient designation for a distinct category of devices), literally means "small" or perhaps "petty" mechanization. It refers to the types of equipment, for example, with which the Library Technology Project of the American Library Association is primarily concerned. Soviet librarians want to have automatic numbering machines, mechanized means for labeling books, devices for more efficiently registering periodicals, mechanisms for duplicating catalog cards, and the like.

Lively interest was evident in the entire field of microforms, the objectives being saving of space, preservation, and ease and economy in reproduction. Similar interest was observed in the entire field of reproduction by various processes.

Obviously, the thinking of Soviet librarians is parallel with that of United States librarians, and there is little point in elaborating further on the Soviet *ideas* about what is needed. More important is the width of the gap between dream and accomplishment. What equipment is already available to other sectors of Soviet life where record-keeping is important, what is on the drawing boards, and what is being developed in Soviet laboratories? Two librarians of the State Public Technological Library of the Siberian Branch of the Academy of Sciences, T. D. Gorodetskaia and D. I. Lev,⁶ claim that there are a number of devices available in the Soviet Union which could be used in libraries, and that Soviet technology in this

⁶T. D. Gorodetskaia and D. I. Lev, "Nekotorye Problemy Mekhanizatsii i Avtomatizatsii Bibliotечно-Bibliograficheskikh Protessov [Some Problems of Mechanization and Automation of Library and Bibliographical Procedures]," *Sovetskaya Bibliografiia*, No. 3, 1960, p.54.

area not only does not lag behind United States technology but in several cases surpasses it in quality. The delegates were not shown or informed about any such devices, and therefore kept an open mind on the subject.

Whether or not such mechanisms are in factory production and therefore readily available to Soviet libraries, there is evidence, encountered frequently, that Soviet engineers have them in development. For example, an American engineer recently reported advanced stages of development in the USSR of the electrostatic method of reproduction.⁷ Gorodetskaya and Lev also comment on advanced Soviet work in this field.⁸

There is no question in the delegates' minds about the *capability* of the Russians to introduce mechanization and automation into library procedures, if they should decide to concentrate their scientific and technological resources on that field. No evidence was encountered, however, that priority had yet been assigned to libraries in the general Soviet campaign to introduce mechanization and automation into the procedures of its entire system of economy and government.

It was the consensus of the delegation that until such priority was assigned, libraries would continue to be affected by the slow development of office equipment in general. United States libraries owe a debt of gratitude to the business community for the mechanization which is available to them, irrespective of the inappropriateness of many of the devices for library procedures. Soviet libraries have not even had the advantage of borrowing machines and supplies from an advanced industrial and commercial system. The method of producing lithographic plates is an example.

Shortly after World War II, United States commercial enterprises found the lithographic process so efficient that the demand for reproduction by this method grew at a tremendous rate. The demand resulted in centralized factory production of presensitized plates, available to any purchaser. United States libraries, consequently, can obtain these plates (developed for an entirely different market) and make good use of them, thereby avoiding the costs of equipment and man-hours involved in the "do-it-yourself" method of producing the plates—the method used, for example, by the Soviet Library of Foreign Literature. In general, therefore, Soviet libraries are sharing the difficulties of an economy only recently emerging from an underdeveloped status.

⁷Thomas J. Kucera, "Foreign Developments in the Electrostatic Printing Field," *Proceedings of the Tenth Annual Convention, National Microfilm Association* (Annapolis, Md.: The Association, 1961), p.265-66.

⁸*Op. cit.*, p.60.

In the longer run this situation might be advantageous for Soviet libraries. United States libraries suffer from the disadvantage of being forced to use machines developed for other types of procedures and often poorly adapted to library needs. Even the type-writer is inadequately designed for use in libraries. If Soviet authorities should concentrate on the design and production of devices intended specifically for use in libraries, they might be able to obviate some of the difficulties which have faced libraries in highly developed industrial nations, where mechanization of libraries has lagged behind mechanization of other sectors of the economy.

Chapter VII

Advanced Mechanization and Automation

The Communist Party Decree of 1959 on libraries found, among other deficiencies of Soviet libraries, that the "material resources and facilities of many libraries leave much to be desired." When it went on to particularize, it cited inadequate buildings as a major target. Equipment such as tables, chairs, catalog cabinets, and shelves were said to be in short supply in many libraries. Finally, it was charged that "in some large libraries obsolete equipment is being replaced much too slowly by new equipment based on automation and mechanization."

The Praesidium of the Academy of Sciences had already severely criticized Soviet librarians on June 27, 1958, for their backwardness in making use of mechanization. And Mr. Gavrilov, in his remarks at the summarizing session at the end of the delegation's trip, stated that one Soviet goal was to find the means of making librarians' work efficient and easy and that Soviet authorities would "put Soviet industry to work on the production of mechanisms for libraries."

In recent years top Soviet authorities have been devoting increasing attention to the mechanization and automation of various industries. Recently, this interest has spread beyond the industrial field. In a decree of December, 1959, the Council of Ministers ordered *all* institutions to draw up projects for possible introduction of modern techniques into their operations. Accordingly, the Ministry of Culture of the RSFSR set up a Commission charged with the task of preparing papers on mechanization, automation, and equipment of libraries. This Commission drew up a list of devices and systems calculated to replace inefficient manual library procedures with mechanized and automated techniques.

The delegation was not shown this list of proposed projects, nor did it hear any mention of intentions to introduce advanced techniques into library procedures, except in very general terms.

The Russians, like ourselves, seem to make a distinction between mechanical and electronic means to improve conventional techniques on the one hand, and unconventional methods for handling information on the other. Roughly speaking, the kinds of devices in the former category, which were discussed in Chapter VI, can be developed by mechanical or electrical engineers, using knowledge that was common in the first two or three decades of this century; these devices can be both operated and serviced by nonprofessional personnel with a minimum of training. The devices and systems in the second category do not yet exist; they can be developed only by the use of the most advanced knowledge of natural phenomena and, when available, can be serviced, and probably operated, only by highly professional people.

It seemed to the delegation that the Soviet professional people interested in these two different approaches were divided into two camps—somewhat like United States librarians and documentalists—who hardly spoke to one another, not because they were inimical but because they spoke different languages. Also in the USSR, as in the United States, those who were interested in highly advanced techniques seemed to be limited, with few exceptions, to scientists and engineers who wanted to see advanced techniques applied to the literature of their own fields.

EXPERIMENTAL INFORMATION MACHINES

The delegation exerted special efforts to inquire into Soviet research and development in the more advanced techniques of information handling. It made its interest very clear at the outset and pressed the matter in the face of considerable resistance and some evasion.

Members of the delegation, for example, had been led to believe—both by previous conversations between United States and Soviet experts and by information published in Soviet journals—that the principal work in the USSR in this field had been conducted by the Laboratory of Electric Modeling, directed by a Professor Lev Izrailevich Gutenmakher, this laboratory being under the administration of the Institute of Scientific Information of the Academy of Sciences.¹

When several members of the delegation visited the Institute and asked for admission to the laboratory, they were told by the Deputy Director that officials of the Institute had been annoyed by

¹See footnote 10, p.27, for its alternative title, "VINITI."

articles appearing in the United States press which attributed "fantastic" achievements to an information machine that had been developed in this laboratory, whereas in fact the laboratory had just started work on an information machine about a year and a half ago (which would have been the autumn of 1959). There was nothing to show in the laboratory, said the Deputy Director, and therefore there was no point in the delegation's visiting it. Professor Gutenmakher, he said, had never worked in the field of information retrieval and, though still in the laboratory, was working on problems entirely different from information handling. The laboratory itself, he went on, was now headed by Professor Anton Mikhailovich Vasilev, and its name had been changed to Department of Mechanization and Automation of Information Work.

In Soviet scientific literature for the past several years one can find occasional references to the potentialities of modern technology for achieving automatic handling of recorded knowledge. Because of the importance of modern technology to library service, it may be useful to review here the occasional references to be found in Soviet scientific literature of the last few years.

Shortly after the Academy of Sciences created the Institute of Scientific Information in 1952, this Institute set up two laboratories to work on problems of this nature: the "Laboratory for Mechanization of Information Work" and "The Electric Modeling Laboratory."²

Professor L. I. Gutenmakher stated, in 1952, the interest in this field of the Laboratory of Electric Modeling which he headed, and of his Institute, in a speculative article in the principal information bulletin of the Academy of Sciences. His article was entitled "On the Problem of Machine Technique of Scientific Information."³

In 1955 the Institute of Scientific Information published, in Moscow, under its own imprint, a booklet by V. P. Cherenin and B. M. Rakov entitled "The Experimental Information Machine of the Institute of Scientific Information of the USSR." The authors described an experimental machine based on a conventional sorter, the purpose of which was to develop an information language. All this work, according to this article, was done in Professor Gutenmakher's laboratory.

In 1956 Professor Gutenmakher announced the concept developed at his Laboratory of Electric Modeling of the Institute of Scientific

²Aleksandr Ivanovich Mikhailov, "On the Functioning of the All-Union Institute for Scientific and Technical Information of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences" (a paper presented at the International Conference on Scientific Information in Washington, D.C., November 16-21, 1958), in International Conference on Scientific Information, Washington, D.C., 1958, *Proceedings* (Washington, D.C.: National Academy of Sciences, National Research Council, 1959), 1:520.

³*Vestnik Akademii Nauk SSSR*, 22, No. 8:46-52 (August, 1952).

Information for the design of a "purely electrical, mechanically immobile information reading machine without electron lamps or tubes." The information would be recorded in binary digital form by use of electrical inductance, mutual inductance, capacitance, or resistance.⁴

In 1957 the same journal of the Academy of Sciences presented a lengthy description of a large-capacity information storage device based on the principle of capacitor punched cards developed under the direction of Professor Gutenmakher at the Laboratory of Electric Modeling.⁵

In 1957 the Industrial Fair in Moscow, which was visited by United States scientists, displayed a model of an information machine and disseminated a brochure describing it.⁶ The pamphlet was entitled *Information Machines with a Large High-Speed Memory*. It was published in 5,000 copies in July, 1957. At the top of the title page appear the words "Academy of Sciences of the USSR," and at the end of the text is the signature "Laboratory of Electric Modeling." It describes a device comprised of three basic components:

1. A large high-speed machine "memory"
2. A "reading device" for machine examination and processing of the information according to a set program
3. A device for the input of information which converts printed literature into "machine language," for machine translation of foreign literature into Russian and for coding

The volume of the "permanent memory" was described as containing more than a billion binary digits, and the speed of "reading" as about a million pages of information an hour. This high-speed memory was called DEZU and consisted of a series of blocks of "metalized" sheets of paper which were operative by electrical capacitance. The so-called "operative memory," called MOZU, was made of ferrite cores and could record and produce 100,000 words per second. Photographs of the components of this information machine were reproduced in the brochure.

In the spring of 1958 there were two articles in Soviet popular science journals⁷ which described the information machines, which, they reported, had been developed or were being planned at the Laboratory of Electric Modeling. One dealt with the information machine described as it was in the brochure at the Industrial Fair. The other mentioned two additional machines:

⁴ *Vestnik Akademii Nauk SSSR*, 26, No. 10:12-21 (October, 1956).

⁵ *Ibid.*, 27, No. 10:88-96 (October, 1957).

⁶ One of the members of the delegation possesses a copy.

⁷ *Znanie-Sila*, 33, No. 3:7-9 (March, 1958), and *Nauka i Zhizn*, 25, No. 5:68 (May, 1958).

1. An information machine using perforated cards containing an index to articles in various fields. The machine, as reported, searches the cards at the rate of 24,000 per hour and has an automatic print-out, which provides the reader with an automatically produced short bibliography.
2. A microfilm searching device that appears to be similar to the American Bush Rapid Selector. The film is reported to contain both text of annotations of articles and a code of black and white dots. The items are reportedly searched automatically at the rate of 10,000 per minute.

Radio Moscow, in an English-language broadcast beamed to Europe on January 8, 1959, reported:

One million pages per hour can be read by the information machines developed by Soviet scientists for rapid automatic perusal and analysis of scientific and technical literature. The information machine is a kind of book depository and has a device for mechanical reading and reviewing of texts in accordance with the request of the reader. The text is abridged and ciphered. When the text is in a foreign language, it is translated by a special machine.

The questions are fed into a special device and translated into its cipher. Any abstract or article can be selected for mechanical "reading" in the same way as telephone numbers are dialed.

The reading device of the machine picks out the necessary material, looks through it, and sums it up in accordance with the question asked. The necessary material is found with the help of literary references and various tables in the "memory bank" of the machine.

This machine can be used as a kind of library linked by wire to the readers, who have special TV sets for reading. By dialing the "address" of the text he needs, the reader will immediately get its image.

Radio Moscow seems to have been describing the same machine which the several above-mentioned Soviet sources credited to Professor Gutenmakher's Laboratory of Electric Modeling.

In 1960 the Academy of Sciences published a book by Professor Gutenmakher entitled *Electronic Information-Logical Machines*.⁸ The edition was in 20,000 copies, of which many are available in the United States. It is a popularized discussion of information-

⁸L. I. Gutenmakher, *Elektronnyye Informatsionno-Logicheskie Mashiny* (Moscow: Izdatelstvo Akademii Nauk, 1960). 190p.

handling machines and contains a rather detailed description of the capacitor memory developed by Gutenmakher.

As for Professor Gutenmakher's present work, his printed business card which he was giving to foreign visitors in the spring and summer of 1960 reads as follows: "Lev Izrailevich Gutenmakher, Doctor of Technical Sciences, Professor, Head of the Sector of Automation of Information Service of the Department of Mechanization and Automation of Information Work of the Institute of Scientific Information of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR."⁹

The apparent change of name of the laboratory is also a matter of interest. For one thing, except for the substitution of the word "Department" for "Laboratory" and the addition of the word "Automation," the organization now headed by Professor Vasilev bears the same name as one that has existed in the Institute of Scientific Information for at least eight years—as indicated by the paper of Professor Aleksandr I. Mikhailov, Director of the Institute (see page 95). At the same time, as reported by Professor Mikhailov, there existed side by side under the Institute an Electric Modeling Laboratory which in subsequent years became, as shown above, associated with the work of its Director, Professor Gutenmakher.

The delegation was told, in May, 1961, that the latter's name had been changed to Department of Mechanization and Automation of Information Work. Yet less than three months before the delegation's visit to the USSR, a major conference had been held at the Institute of Scientific Information, more than one paper of which mentioned the Laboratory of Electric Modeling. This change of names may be unimportant. The change could have occurred between February and May. Or the papers mentioned could have been anachronistic.

What is far more important is the fact that not one of the Soviet hosts mentioned the major conference that had been held only a few weeks before the visit of the delegation and at which more than 300 papers had been read. (Dozens of these papers were available in the United States.) The topics covered by the conference were: "Information Handling," "Machine Translation," and "Automatic Reading of Text." When Professor Vasilev was asked if the proceedings of the conference would be published, he replied that no decision had been made.¹⁰

⁹A member of the delegation possesses a copy of this card. The transliterated text is (below his name): Doktor Tekhnicheskikh Nauk, Professor, Zavedushchii Sektorom Avtomatizatsii Informatsionnoi Sluzhby Otdela Mekhanizatsii i Avtomatizatsii Informatsionnykh Rabot Instituta Nauchnoi Informatsii Akademii Nauk SSSR.

¹⁰It was later learned that many of these papers were listed in the *Supplement to Knizhnaya Letopis*—the list which in 1961 was restricted to internal distribution in the USSR (see entries 10969-11045 and 19956-19965).

Also interesting is the fact that the papers of this conference (several of which had been read by at least one member of the delegation before leaving the United States in late April) displayed far more sophistication about information-handling techniques than was revealed to members of the delegation when finally admitted to the Department of Mechanization and Automation of Information Work at VINITI.

DEPARTMENT OF MECHANIZATION AND AUTOMATION OF INFORMATION WORK

At this Department, which turned out to be actually a laboratory, two members of the group were received cordially by its Director. Professor Vasilev, who first gave an informal review of the approach being taken by his Department toward automatic handling of information. What he related—such as a debate being waged concerning the type of information to be stored, e.g., whether it should be just the index or the index plus text—suggested the deliberations and arguments of United States documentalists during the last ten to fifteen years.

Reporting on the devices on which his Department is now concentrating its attention, Professor Vasilev stated that he and his colleagues had decided that what was required was a huge memory in binary form which would contain between 10 and 100 billion words. To service this device there would be needed an operative memory which, unlike the permanent memory, would be erasable.

Another basic problem defined by Professor Vasilev was the transformation of textual information into the binary code form which the two memory systems could handle. This would be achieved by the preparation of a punched tape, which would have the dual function of operating the linotype machines producing the Institute's printed materials and of feeding the same information automatically into the permanent memory.

The next stage in this process of automation of information handling, according to Professor Vasilev, would be automatic reading of text whereby, without intervention of human intelligence, printed text (in any language or in any font) would be transformed into binary code and fed into the permanent memory.

After this introduction Professor Vasilev took the members of the delegation to various rooms in his laboratory, where engineers were at work on the devices he had described. In the first shop visited, the engineers were working on the punched-tape activated linotype device. Basically the equipment consisted of a typewriter assemblage which produced punched tape similar to that produced by United States typewriters of that type and which in turn activated

keys on a linotype machine by means of simple solenoids. This kind of device has been in commercial use in Western Europe and the United States for about twenty years.

Next shown was the shop where the logic machine for the storage system was being developed. The engineer in charge was developing components based on ferrite cores. These had the conventional characteristics: gate, bridge, and/or, amplifier, and logic. The components shown seemed to be very competently and neatly constructed.

The delegates were then taken to the shop where the operative memory was under development. Here were displayed blocks of ferrite cores consisting of 1,000 words of 48 bits, one line of cores per word. The engineers were building a machine which would consist of 64 of these blocks. They were experimenting with tiny ferrite rods to substitute for the cores, and the delegates were shown blocks which were one fourth the size of those made of cores but with the same capacity.

Next was the shop where the heart of the system—the card capacitor memory—was under construction. So far as the delegates could tell as amateurs, the device is designed to work on exactly the same principles as Gutenmakher's original DEZU machine, but mechanically it differs markedly. Its basic element is a file of stiff cards, each about $8 \times 3 \times 1/32$ inches in size, into which are cut 24 slots on the 3-inch axis so that its general appearance is roughly like a rectangular comb. Across each card are 8 horizontal straight printed circuits, all intersected and thus interrupted by the 24 slots. These cards are filed in a tray with thin insulating material between them, each sheet of insulation having slots exactly corresponding to those in the cards. Copper bus strips are then inserted through all the cards and insulators (i.e., in 8 vertical and 24 horizontal rows). This array apparently constitutes a system of matrices comprised of tiny capacitors.

The "intelligence" on each card is imposed by punching holes at the intersection of the printed circuit and bus bar, thus varying the capacitance. Each "punched card" (as the Russians call it) contains 192 bits, or 4 words of 48 bits each (the amount they reserve for a word).

The small experimental model which the delegates saw contained 500 of these cards in a space roughly $8 \times 16 \times 3$ inches in size, not counting the space occupied by the container and by the attached wiring (and of course not counting the driving components). With 192 bits per card, there were 96,000 bits or 2,000 words in this experimental box. Professor Vasilev said that his laboratory had assembled an operating model of such cards for 10,000 words and had operated it sixteen hours a day for six months without a

single error. He proudly pointed out that it operated without moving parts.

Extrapolating from the dimensions given the delegates, one can calculate that a device constructed on these principles, containing the 10 billion words toward which the Soviet engineers are currently aiming, would occupy a space of approximately 10^5 cubic feet or about $100 \times 100 \times 10$ feet for the cards alone.¹¹ The driving components, even if transistorized, would occupy additional space almost as large.

Many United States engineers will look aghast at such dimensions. But any American who has driven a United States-built automobile on Russian roads in the muddy springtime and watched the simpler, sturdier, and far less elegant Soviet-built cars pass his bogged-down luxury vehicle would not be inclined to overlook what is after all a cultural difference. Those who are impressed by the Soviet hit on the moon and the Soviet cosmic excursions around the earth will also not be inclined to disparage size and simplicity.

The last shop in the laboratory shown was working on a character recognition machine. The method: a flying spot scanner covering letter by letter, line by line. The signal produced is in binary form: black or white. Recognition is achieved by a matrix of ferrite cores, 64 lines horizontally, 64 vertically. Units for coding, decoding, and read out have also been developed. The engineers are using a 32-letter Cyrillic alphabet at present, but are aiming at an eventual goal of recognizing not only the alphabets and characters for *all* languages, but the various fonts of type involved as well. The experimental device seen was in a primitive state, and in the opinion of the delegates who saw it far behind the state of the art achieved in the United States.

As the tour of the laboratory was concluded, Professor Vasilev stated that he had shown only those devices which were in a stage of laboratory development. He volunteered the comment that he was not willing to discuss the theoretical work and the planning for other machines which were going on.

Though the delegates enjoyed the relaxed cordiality of Professor Vasilev, were interested in the various shops in his laboratory they were permitted to see, and were grateful for the more than half a day's time he gave, they left with the feeling that much more

¹¹ Professor Mikhailov, Director of the Institute, estimates that one cubic meter "of the paper with such micro capacitors will have a capacity of $1.5 \cdot 10^6$ bits" (A. I. Mikhailov, "Problems of Mechanization and Automation of Information Work," *Revue Internationale de la Documentation*, 29, No. 2:54 [1962]), but it is not certain that he was referring to the same device seen by the delegates. With this capacity, 10 billion words would occupy a space in the order of 10^7 cubic feet.

could probably be learned about Soviet progress in advanced information-handling techniques by reading Soviet publications in the United States than the delegates were able to learn by traveling to the USSR. There is a voluminous body of Soviet literature to support this statement, far too large to permit citation here.

By way of example, a seminar on pattern recognition devices was held in the Soviet Union a few months before the delegation's visit, the proceedings of which were reported in the *Vestnik* of the Academy of Sciences in 1960.¹² Numerous projects in several laboratories throughout the USSR were reported there, most if not all of which were far more sophisticated than the devices the delegates were shown at the Department of Mechanization and Automation of Information Work of the Institute of Scientific Information. Indeed, the delegation cannot help suspecting, given the obvious competence of the leadership and staff of the Department of Mechanization, that more sophisticated work than was shown or talked about may be going on within the Institute itself. And, as reported above, Professor Vasilev said that he would not reveal their thoughts and plans for the future.

The delegation's unrewarding search for information about advanced Soviet techniques of handling information leads to certain tentative conclusions:

1. Soviet development, manufacture, and distribution of devices in this category are not yet well advanced.
2. Soviet theoretical work in this field, as judged by Soviet literature, may be as advanced as anywhere in the world.
3. Soviet officials are not yet willing to discuss some of the work they are now doing in this field.¹³

As with the application of well-known techniques to the more conventional procedures of libraries, there is no question about

¹²*Vestnik Akademii Nauk SSSR*, 30, No. 9:103-4 (September, 1960).

¹³The latter conclusion may be unjustified, or may be outdated, for the Director of the Institute told the International Federation of Documentation in September, 1961: "Extension and intensification of co-operation between scientists and engineers of different countries engaged in research and development in this field, [and] a systematic exchange of results obtained are necessary provisions for speeding up mechanization and automation of information processing" (A. I. Mikhailov, *op. cit.*, p.56). It is possible, too, that the Soviet scientist-hosts at VINITI felt that their librarian-guests would not understand or appreciate their more advanced work. Professor Mikhailov's cordial and cooperative statement seems to indicate that United States scientists and engineers, when admitted to the same laboratory, may be shown and told more than were the United States librarians who preceded them.

Soviet abilities to achieve any desired objective in finding greatly advanced solutions to the problems of handling information. The tremendous skills of Russian mathematicians and linguists, dating back many decades before the Communist period and extending to the present day, are well known. Their contemporary experience and sophistication with such matters as computers, machine translation, and other fields related to information storage and retrieval have been observed with respect by United States scientists.

The only question is whether or not Soviet authorities have decided to concentrate their available talents and resources on advanced techniques for solving the numerous and complex problems which confront libraries in the twentieth century.

Chapter VIII

Librarians and Librarianship

The dedication, competence, and enthusiasm of Soviet librarians impressed the American delegation very favorably. The quality of people who enter the profession, the nature of their training, their status in the intellectual community, and their methods of improving librarianship itself are all striking and stimulating. A strong sense of professional rapport was quickly and easily established between American and Soviet librarians in every city and village visited.

EDUCATION OF LIBRARIANS¹

A person may enter the field of Soviet librarianship at several levels and through different doors. The chief training agencies are (1) the library institutes, (2) the universities, (3) the technical high schools, and (4) the in-service training programs.

The four major library institutes—Moscow, Leningrad, Kharkov, and a recently created East Siberian Institute in Ulan Ude—offer four-and-one-half to five-year curricula to high school graduates who are training for the higher professional positions. A fifth Middle Asia Library Institute is now being organized at Tashkent. These institutes are separate educational agencies under the republic Ministries of Culture. The curricula are uniform, except for local variations of language and culture, and are self-contained.

¹ A survey of library training in the USSR by the Director of the Foreign Literature Library appeared in a recent issue of *Libri*: Margarita Rudomino, "Library Training in the USSR," *Libri*, 12, No. 1:1-7 (1962).

The Leningrad State Library Institute, visited by the delegation, will be described in general terms below.

Equal in status with the programs of the institutes are the training programs of a number of universities in Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia, Belorussia, Georgia, Azerbaïdzhan, Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan, and Armenia. In some instances the faculties of librarianship are parts of the pedagogical institutes of the universities. The entrance requirements, the curricula, and the standards of these university programs are similar to those of the separate library institutes.

Many scholars with university degrees in fields other than librarianship are welcomed to the profession after a period of either formal or in-service library training in a manner similar to the normal pattern of postgraduate training in the United States. A diploma course for university graduates is offered, for example, by the Leningrad State Library Institute.

A lower level of library training for smaller mass and children's libraries is provided by many technical high schools or *tekhnikums*. There are now fifty-five such schools in the Soviet Union, with twenty-three in the Ukraine alone. Many thousands of students are graduated each year.

Numerous in-service training programs are also available to working librarians. Until 1960 a special Refresher Courses Institute was responsible for part-time seminars. This institute has now been dissolved, and its functions have been assigned to the regular library institutes. Three- to twelve-month courses with examinations are supplied by correspondence. Locally sponsored seminars, workshops, conferences, and refresher courses are continually going on everywhere. Many are organized by the library methodological centers for the smaller libraries within their jurisdiction; others appear to be staff projects of a more or less spontaneous nature. In Tashkent, for example, special "circles" are held to enable young librarians without higher education to improve their knowledge of libraries and librarianship.

The Leningrad State Library Institute, since it was the only one visited by the delegation, will be described here as an example of the higher professional library schools of the Soviet Union. The delegation was told that the standards and curricula of all the library institutes and university training programs were essentially the same. This particular Institute was established in 1918 and is now administered by the Ministry of Culture of the RSFSR. Its full title includes the name of Lenin's wife, Krupskaya, who is revered as the founder of Soviet librarianship.

There were 4,070 students enrolled during the spring of 1961. Of these, 3,300 were enrolled in the library division, the rest in the division of cultural work. Six hundred and sixty students were to

be graduated in 1961. There is apparently no difficulty in recruiting good students; many librarians are needed in all types of libraries, and librarianship is regarded as a desirable career. High school graduates (about age seventeen) are selected on the basis of a competitive entrance examination in general literature (both Russian and foreign, but chiefly Russian), the history of the USSR, and one foreign language (usually English, French, or German). An essay must also be written in the Russian language. (This is the same examination that is taken by all applicants for higher education in any field.) About 50 per cent of the successful applicants at the Institute are men. None is foreign, although the delegation was told that some foreign students (their nationalities were not specified) attend the Moscow Institute.²

About 85 per cent of the students attend the Institute on state scholarships that cover tuition, textbooks, room and board, and even clothing. A token fee of one (new) ruble and fifty kopeks is collected monthly to instill a sense of responsibility in the students. The 15 per cent who do not get scholarships are either well-to-do or notably less competent than the recipients of awards. A few of the weakest students are expelled.

The curriculum is divided into (1) general courses in the social sciences, humanities, physical sciences, and foreign languages and (2) special courses in library science. The general courses occupy 60-65 per cent of the entire curriculum. The special courses cover the historical and technical aspects of librarianship and include specialized programs for children's and technical librarians. An elective course is offered in the history of the arts (theater, cinema, and the like), and all students are required to take courses in the fundamentals of Marxist and Leninist ethics and aesthetics and in the principles of scientific atheism.

This curriculum is applied uniformly to students in the day, the evening, and the correspondence departments. Of the 660 graduates in 1961, 180 (27 per cent) attended the day department, 50 (8 per cent) the evening department, and 430 (65 per cent) the correspondence department.

Students may take courses in the day department if they have had two years of work experience in any field; most of these students have actually had library experience. Students with no work experience are required to take daytime library jobs and attend only

² In the academic year 1961-62, the first United States librarian—so far as the delegation knows—was a student at a Soviet library institute. Robert Karlowich of the University of Illinois was one of thirty-seven United States graduate students chosen as exchange students under the U.S.-Soviet Cultural Exchange Agreement for that year. His field was library science, and he was enrolled at the Leningrad State Library Institute.

evening classes the first year. From the second year on all may attend the day classes. After three and one-half years, the graduates leave the Institute to work a full year in a library, then return at the end of the year to take the Institute examinations.

Then follow the state examinations, which are administered by a special committee of the Ministry of Culture. These examinations cover the history of the Communist Party, literature (varied by field of specialization), librarianship, and bibliography. The successful candidates, having received their diplomas, are obligated to return to the libraries to which they had been assigned during the previous year for an additional period of work before moving on to other positions.

The program of the evening department covers five years. All students work in Leningrad libraries and take sixteen hours of classes per week. Each year they are given thirty days of leave, at full pay, from their jobs to prepare for the Institute examinations. An additional thirty days of paid leave is granted when students prepare for the state examinations.

About 98 per cent of all correspondence students are also working librarians, many in the more remote republics. Entrance examinations and the general course examination may be taken in the student's home town, but the student must go to the Institute or one of its branches for his examinations in the special library courses. Paid leave and transportation are provided by the state. The three branches where the student may take all but the state examinations are at Khabarovsk (in the extreme eastern part of Siberia, near the Pacific), Kirov (over 500 miles east of Moscow, near the western approaches to the Ural Mountains), and Kaliningrad (formerly Königsberg of East Prussia on the Baltic). Correspondence students must go to Leningrad for the same state examinations the day students take.

A three-year postgraduate course is offered to persons who already have the higher degree in librarianship. The purpose of this program, which is similar to the doctoral program in American library schools, is training for research and for the highest administrative positions. After the submission of a major thesis, the degree of Candidate of Pedagogical Sciences is granted. The Institute also maintains a department of research which investigates library problems, develops new methods, and recommends the adoption of improved furnishings and equipment, such as lights, compact stacks, and microfilm projectors.

The American delegation could not assess the quality of the teaching or the content of the curriculum, but the product seemed to be satisfactory as judged by the spirit and ability of the graduates. By comparison with American library schools, the Soviet institutes

are conspicuously strong in field work and practical experience. A full year of field work is required of the day students. The specialized library courses appear to take about the same amount of time (35-40 per cent of three and one-half years) as the master's program in the United States.

On the other hand, the Soviet library institutes require much less general educational background (60-65 per cent of three and one-half years) than do American schools, which require graduation from a four-year college or university, with a university degree in some field other than librarianship, for admission to the one-year specialized library curriculum. Indeed, the delegation questioned whether the graduates of the Soviet institutes are given sufficient opportunity to become as broadly educated as American librarians. The only Soviet library recruits who might possibly enjoy wider scope are the university graduates in fields other than librarianship who later transfer to library work, that is, who enter librarianship after receiving an undergraduate university degree. It is hoped readers will not assume that these observations are made in ignorance of the differences between United States and Soviet educational systems in general. The delegation is aware that the Soviet student receives a liberal arts program of study throughout the first decade of matriculation—comparable to the gymnasium level of Western Europe—and then begins specialization. Nonetheless, it seems to the delegation that on balance the graduate of a Soviet library institute is more narrowly specialized—and less broadly educated—than his counterpart in the United States.

One other aspect of the Soviet library institutes raised questions in the minds of the American delegates—the lack of university affiliation. It has been the experience of American librarians that general cultural courses as offered by the faculty of a special, nonuniversity institute are often less adequate than the same courses offered by the regular departments of a university. Standards may be lower, and the materials may be slanted too sharply toward professional interests; the product may be second-rate from an academic point of view. For this reason all but a few American library schools have long since been affiliated with strong universities, and the students are required to compete with other university students in the fields of their specialization. A prospective librarian, for example, who is majoring in chemistry in the university before entering library school must hold his own in competition with prospective, professional chemists. There is no special curriculum in the United States in chemistry for librarians.

STATUS OF LIBRARIANS

librarians in the Soviet Union. Is librarianship regarded as a desirable career? Is it attractive in comparison with other careers? Are librarians well paid? Generally speaking, the answer seems to be that Soviet librarians enjoy a respected position in Soviet society, and that salaries and status are on a par with those of other professional groups requiring comparable training. It is a relatively stable profession with considerable opportunity for personal advancement and for significant social service, according to Soviet standards in this field. There are many jobs waiting; working conditions are good; the future of any student who can gain admission to library school and complete the state examination is relatively secure.

Uniform salary schedules are recommended by the Ministry of Culture, in consultation with the State Committee on Labor and Salaries, and are approved by the Council of Ministers. Three criteria are used: amount of education, type of library, and climatic zone.

The basic criterion is amount of education—a criterion which applies equally to teachers, research workers, and other professional groups, as well as to librarians. A librarian with a higher academic degree draws the same pay as a scientist with a comparable degree, and a scientist working as a specialist in a research library is paid the same as if he were working in a laboratory. The salary of a mass or school librarian who has graduated from a technical high school is equal to that of an elementary school teacher who has been trained at the same level. The mass or scholarly librarian who has graduated from a library institute draws the same salary as a university graduate. A person who has a university degree in a field other than librarianship and has later qualified as a librarian earns 10 per cent more than the graduate of the library institute. A librarian with the degree of Candidate (similar to the American doctorate) is paid on a par with university professors and other scholars who are also Candidates.

Dr. Nicholas DeWitt found that—as of the mid-1950's—"librarians" (rank unspecified) were in a wage category which he designated "below level" (61-80 rubles per month), sharing this position with preschool teachers, elementary grade schoolteachers, semiprofessional medical personnel, and the like. In his "above average" wage category (121-170 rubles per month), Dr. DeWitt found "senior librarians" on a level with secondary school directors, editors and translators, junior research workers, chief physicians and directors of medical establishments, ordinary engineers, designers, and economists. In the "high" salary category (171-400 rubles per month) library directors share the company of professors and associate professors in higher education, directors and deputy directors of higher educational and research establishments, senior research workers,

and the like. In the "very high" (401-700 rubles per month) and "extremely high" (700 rubles and over per month) categories librarians do not appear.³

These uniform salary schedules are varied, however, by type of institution. All research institutions, including libraries, are classified on the basis of the significance of their work in relation to the economic and cultural needs of the country. The Council of Ministers, on recommendation of the State Committee on Labor and Salaries, has established four categories of institutions. Research libraries, such as the Lenin Library, are in Category II—next to the top. Only the highest-priority research institutes belong in Category I. The only library that is said to be in Category I is the All-Union Library of Foreign Literature, which is administered directly by the USSR Ministry of Culture. Most, or perhaps all, of the smaller mass libraries, and many of the larger libraries in the outlying republics, appear to belong in Category III.

It was understood by the delegation that the highest salary schedules are applied to institutions in Category I, the lowest to those in Category IV. People with a given academic status are therefore paid more or less depending upon the significance of the institution in which they work. It was noted in the Ukraine, however, that the Ministry of Culture was considering the elimination of type of institution as a criterion for the determination of salaries, presumably because the present system discriminated against the mass and school libraries, which urgently need more highly trained staff.

The delegation collected no information about the third criterion determining rates of salary: climatic zone. It assumes that it relates to "hardship posts," such as in the Arctic regions.

In brief, the delegation concluded that, except in the smaller libraries, the status of Soviet librarians is good indeed. Libraries are highly rated among other kinds of educational and research institutions, and librarians get the same pay as other graduates or scholars with comparable academic qualifications.

The relatively low qualifications required of librarians for the smaller mass, children's, and school libraries seemed to the delegation to pose a serious problem in the Soviet library system. The graduates of the library institutes and the universities take positions in the republic, state, oblast, academy, university, and other large libraries which require their competence. Very few of them now direct raion (comparable to the United States county) and rural libraries, which in the judgment of the delegation also require their competence. The vast majority of the rural and raion librarians

³Nicholas DeWitt, *Education and Professional Employment in the USSR* (Washington, D.C.: National Science Foundation, 1961), p.543.

are graduates only of the technical high schools, which are designed to serve this market. The line has been drawn by size of library, instead of by the professional nature of the work required.

Conversely, a surprisingly high proportion of the staff of larger libraries are fully trained as professional librarians. Very few graduates of the technical high schools are employed in large libraries. To the American delegates, who are accustomed to dividing library work not so much by size of library as by its professional or nonprofessional nature, this fact also raised a question. It appeared to the delegation that the larger Soviet libraries were using fully professional people to do many kinds of routine library work, such as attending loan desks, that are assigned to nonprofessional assistants in American libraries.

The American pattern is to use fully professional librarians in key positions in both large and small libraries—the professional nature of the work being regarded as essentially the same—and to support the professional staff, especially in large libraries, with many clerical or subprofessional assistants. The ratio of subprofessional or clerical to professional staff is often as high as two to one. To the American observers, the Soviet pattern of concentrating almost all of the best people in the larger libraries, where they are often expected to do subprofessional or clerical as well as professional work, is wasteful of professional talent; while the concentration of the less well-trained people in the smaller libraries, where they must try to do professional as well as subprofessional and clerical work, is a disservice to the masses of readers.

Efforts are now being made, however, the delegation was told, to recruit larger numbers of library institute graduates for service in the rural and raion libraries. In the Ukraine especially was this need expressed to the delegation; and, as noted above, the possibility of discontinuing type of library as a determinant of salary and status is being considered. The further possibility of using larger numbers of technical high school graduates for the more routine, subprofessional work of the larger libraries might, it seemed to the delegation, also be usefully considered.

Some data were collected by the delegation on the size and composition of the staffs of individual libraries. Three examples might serve as illustrative.

The staff of the Lenin Library consists of 2,150 people, exclusive of cloakroom attendants, janitors, and employees of the printing department. (The comparable Library of Congress statistic is approximately 2,600.) Of these 2,150 people, 1,750 are librarians and 400 are technical staff, such as engineers and shopworkers. Assistant librarians who have only technical high school training are included in both groups. About three fourths of the 1,750 librarians

are university or institute graduates. Many are subject specialists with one year of in-service library training.

The main library of Kiev State University employs 70 people, excluding cloakroom attendants and janitors. About half are graduates of library institutes, 5 hold their positions on the basis of experience, 3 or 4 are graduates of technical high schools, and the rest are university graduates in fields other than librarianship. There are 3 clerical positions in the cataloging and acquisition departments. Loan desk attendants are required to be library institute graduates. Branch librarians are not included in this total.

The special library of Shoe Factory No. 4 at Kiev has 4 full-time staff members. Two are library institute graduates, 1 is a technical high school graduate, and 1 is a graduate of the Institute of Light Industry. The library supplies both technical and general literature to 5,000 factory workers, including 300 engineers.

It was impossible for the delegates to evaluate Soviet library staffs in terms of size. Many libraries, especially the smaller mass, children's, and school libraries, seemed understaffed. A few of the larger libraries seemed overstaffed in relation to the nature and extent of their services. Possibly lack of mechanization is partly responsible. No generalizations are feasible, except that a great and growing army of librarians is widely spread throughout the country. The delegation was told that there are 100,000 librarians in the Ukraine alone, 30,000 of whom work in mass and other libraries within the network of the Ministry of Culture. Such statistics include, of course, nearly all regular library employees and are not directly comparable to American statistics. One can only admire the energy and determination with which this large reservoir of qualified personnel is being created.

Its creation is a responsibility primarily of the Ministry of Culture, which supervises the library institutes, establishes standards and qualifications, and recommends salary scales. When the Lenin Library, for example, requires new or additional staff members, the Director applies to the Ministry of Culture, which supplies names of available people from which he may choose. Other applicants, such as persons moving from place to place, may offer their services. A personnel department attends to problems arising from routine turnover, marriages, and the like. Successful applicants are assigned to the Library by the Ministry.

CENTRALIZED GUIDANCE AND ASSISTANCE

One of the greatest differences between American and Soviet librarianship is the way in which the profession is advanced. In large degree, Americans rely upon individual initiative and



Sovfoto

A corner of the history reading room of Samarkand State University Library, Uzbekistan

enterprise in the discovery of new methods and upon voluntary acceptance of those methods which prove to be most useful. Responsibility is essentially local. The Soviets plan their improvements centrally and at a high level of political authority; officials at the top identify a problem, find what they believe to be the best solution, then apply that solution more or less uniformly throughout the country. The responsibility is essentially centralized in the Ministry of Culture. Having determined policy and procedure on a countrywide

basis, the Ministry passes down this competence through an elaborate network of methodological centers to the least and most remote hamlets in the country.

There are, therefore, no library associations in the Soviet Union—associations, that is, in the American sense of voluntary, nongovernmental organizations of individuals who seek to improve themselves and their profession. No distinction is drawn between official and nonofficial activities. When the Soviet delegation visited the United States, the delegates seemed to be searching for some kind of official status of the American Library Association—some covert way (there being none overt) in which it establishes and enforces national library policy, or at least carries out policies determined by whatever higher interests it serves. The Soviet guests were simply trying to understand the American system in terms applicable in the Soviet Union. American librarians will commit the same error if they try to interpret the Soviet system in terms applicable in the United States. The lack of library associations in the Soviet Union means only that librarianship, like all other activities, is an integral part of national planning, and that the improvement of librarianship is therefore pursued primarily through official channels. Individual interests are subordinated to group interests, and group interests are, by definition, official.

As already indicated, responsibility for the improvement of Soviet librarianship throughout the entire USSR is now centralized in the Main Library Inspection Office of the Ministry of Culture of the USSR, which coordinates the activities of the library networks of all the ministries. The general methodological center for the country is the Lenin Library. The Foreign Literature Library bears a special responsibility for methods of handling foreign literature. Moscow University Library is the national center for the network of the Ministry of Higher Education. Within each network subordinate centers are dispersed at various geographic or administrative levels throughout the land. For state and mass libraries, for example, the Ministry of Culture has designated certain libraries as methodological centers in each republic, district, oblast, and raion; the centers in the raions provide technical assistance to the village and rural libraries within their jurisdictions.

The nature of these centers was first revealed to the American delegation at the Lenin Library. The Scientific and Methodological Department of this Library, as described by one member of the delegation, is like the American Library Association, the Special Libraries Association, the Library Services Branch of the U.S. Office of Education, the H. W. Wilson Company, and the Council on Library Resources all rolled into one. Its purpose is to conduct research, to compile bibliographies on various subjects, and to provide

methodological assistance to the libraries of the USSR. Assistance includes consultation with librarians on such problems as cataloging and classification, the publication of textbooks and manuals on library science, and the organization of conferences and seminars for the exchange of information.

The Department has eight sections: (1) Service for Readers and Selective Bibliography, which compiles book lists for the guidance of readers and for use by libraries as aids to book selection; (2) Book Stocks and Catalogs, which is concerned with problems relating to the acquisition and organization of library collections; (3) Organization and Planning for Librarianship, which includes standards and techniques of library services and the training of librarians; (4) Local Bibliography, which publishes guides for district libraries on the handling of local history collections and materials on topics of current popular interest; (5) Service to Children, which covers all aspects of work with children, including selective bibliography; (6) History of Librarianship and Bibliography; (7) Information on Librarianship and Bibliography Abroad; and (8) the Special Library, which is a library science library of some 40,000 volumes. The Department employs a staff of about fifty people, including lawyers, historians, and physicists.

Another staff of fifty people is employed by the Department of Bibliography and Librarianship of the Saltykov-Shchedrin Library, which shares responsibility for guidance in methodology with the Lenin Library for the northeastern areas of the RSFSR. Like its equivalent in the Lenin Library, this Department prepares publications on librarianship, compiles bibliographies, and gives methodological assistance to various libraries, especially mass libraries. Its specialists go into the field to inspect libraries and to advise working librarians on all such problems as technical services, the stimulation of library use, and how to help children with their reading. Conferences are organized for the exchange of information and experience.

The methodological center for the Ukraine is the Ukrainian State Republic Library, that for Uzbekistan the national library for the Uzbek Republic. These republic centers follow in large degree the principles and policies derived from the Lenin Library, to which major issues are referred, but they also assume initiative in developing local practices that are appropriate to their own regional climates, languages, and customs. The Ukrainian State Republic Library, for example, issues bibliographies in editions up to 20,000 to help librarians deal with literature concerning local problems of agricultural production.

Below the republic centers are the district, oblast, and raion centers. The Moscow City Library serves other libraries in the

Moscow district with bibliographical aids to Chinese, Indian, and American literature. There is an active Methodological Department in the Kalinin Oblast Library. The Borispol Raion Library has a methods person who inspects and advises twenty-six village libraries. Monthly seminars of two days each are held for the village librarians, and each library is visited two or three times every three months. Theoretical conferences are held annually. Workshops are arranged for young, untrained librarians. The center assures that the work of all libraries is well carried out and gives advice on cataloging, shelving, book selection, recruiting, and the like.

The methodological centers for children's libraries are sometimes parts of more general centers, at other times separate centers in special children's libraries. The Lenin Library, the Saltykov-Shchedrin Library, and the Ukrainian State Republic Library, for example, have children's sections in their general methodological departments. In the Kalinin Oblast Library, on the other hand, the responsibility for assistance to sixty children's libraries is vested in the Pushkin Children's Library, which is a branch of the Kalinin Oblast Library. The Pushkin Children's Library even distributes the books and catalog cards to the libraries within its jurisdiction. It issues instructions on the proper management of children's libraries and, like other centers, inspects the libraries and holds meetings of the librarians.

The Kiev Oblast Library for Children serves the school as well as the separate children's libraries of the area. Its Methodological and Bibliography Department performs all the usual functions of inspection and instruction and compiles many bibliographies, including an extensive annual index to articles on children's books and education. As a reference center on children's books, it gives out information by telephone and letter as well as in person. A separate children's library at Borispol oversees the twenty-five school libraries in that raion.

The Soviet library profession is thus officially organized in such a way that instruction and guidance toward the improvement of library work are handed down step by step from such national centers as the Lenin Library or the Moscow University Library to the grass roots of the entire country. New ideas are diffused, standards are raised, techniques are taught, and, above all, bibliographies are disseminated in large numbers to guide libraries and readers everywhere in the best ways of achieving the economic and cultural goals of the Soviet society. Within the framework of that society, this system of professional organization is well developed and probably very effective. By contrast, the American system of voluntary, unofficial associations and other private agencies seems loose and casual.

The American system of professional library organization, however, has certain advantages over the tightly knit, closely controlled Soviet system. In particular, it encourages a maximum of varied, individual experimentation. In viewing Soviet libraries, the American delegation was struck by what it regarded as an excessive uniformity of practice, despite local adaptations, that was inconsistent with the wide range of cultural patterns of the several Soviet republics. The same exhibits, the same designs of exhibit cases, the same sets of statistics, the same division of reader privileges, even the same lack of such items as mechanical equipment tended toward monotony.

While standardization of many practices (e.g., statistics) is a desirable goal of libraries everywhere, the delegation felt that the Soviet system tended to standardize undesirable practices as well as desirable. The emphasis was not so much on individual initiative in the development of new and more effective techniques (e.g., exhibits) as on group conformity in the most effective application of predetermined techniques. For this reason Soviet libraries in general seemed to the delegation less inventive, less varied in their methods of achieving their goals, and indeed less interesting than the libraries of most Western countries. Nevertheless, their power to carry out a national program, once a method has been designated and to the extent that a single method is adequate, is highly impressive. Librarianship in the Soviet Union is an extremely well-organized profession.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

The American delegation had little opportunity to inquire into the international activities of Soviet librarianship. Some foreign students, it was learned, do attend the Moscow Library Institute; how many and from what countries was not learned. There was no mention of Soviet librarians working as consultants in the uncommitted countries of Africa, Asia, or Latin America. Many foreign librarians, especially from the satellite countries, do visit the Soviet Union; relatively few Soviet librarians appear to visit countries outside the Soviet bloc. There have been notable exceptions, particularly in connection with various international meetings of librarians and bibliographers. The Soviet Union has been represented at several such meetings and has contributed importantly to their success.

Soviet librarianship, as such, does not seem to be involved in any direct way with the distribution of Soviet books for propaganda purposes in other countries of the world. The international relations of Soviet librarianship are largely restricted to the acquisition and dissemination of foreign library literature and the development of

contacts with international professional organizations, such as the International Federation of Library Associations.

The Lenin Library, as noted above, has a section on Information on Librarianship and Bibliography Abroad in its Scientific and Methodological Department. About 40 per cent of its special library science collection is foreign. The Foreign Literature Library, which bears central responsibility for international library relations, has a Foreign Library Literature Section and an International Relations Section. The Foreign Library Literature Section collects, indexes, and annotates foreign library periodicals and compiles bibliographies of those periodicals. It has four professional staff members. The International Relations Section, with five professional staff members, compiles manuals on the International Federation of Library Associations, the International Federation of Documentation, and the International Standards Organization. It issues a selective Russian edition of the Unesco *Bulletin for Libraries* and other Unesco publications, works with numerous foreign library delegations, and exchanges information with international library organizations.

The Director of the Foreign Literature Library, Mrs. Margarita I. Rudomino, is Chairman of the Committee on Librarianship and Bibliography of the Soviet National Commission for Unesco. She is also Chairman of the Committee on International Relations of the Council on Library Problems of the Ministry of Culture of the USSR. In general, the Foreign Literature Library appears to be the central agency that represents Soviet librarianship in international affairs and international librarianship in Soviet affairs.

Postscript

Among the questions asked the American delegation since its return, the most frequent has been: What of value was derived from the exchange of visits? The answer to this can only be that the results are complex and largely intangible.

Goals for the exchange were set by the International Relations Committee of the American Library Association at the outset.¹ Hope was expressed that both education and research in the United States would benefit from a better understanding of Soviet library practice; that something might be learned about the role of libraries in the Soviet educational system which could be adapted to the American system; and that something might be learned or gained which would improve the resources of American libraries in their support of the rapidly multiplying Russian study programs here. There was also some expectation that the visits might lead to development of a channel of communication between librarians of the United States and the USSR which would contribute further to the other objectives.

Foremost among the goals of the exchange, as established by the International Relations Committee, was the hope that the two missions would contribute to the improvement of relations between the United States and the USSR—the fundamental objective of the official U.S.-Soviet Cultural Agreement of which the exchange was a part.

Success in achieving these goals was varied and in no case spectacular. But the over-all results of the exchange were positive. Inasmuch as there was no conspicuous failure in striving for any of

¹See p.1-2.

the above aims, the entire undertaking can be considered successful.

Little of what the delegation observed about Soviet methods of library assistance to the educational process can be usefully applied in the United States; nor did Soviet library procedures and technical processes suggest innovations which United States libraries might wish to adopt. (Conversely, the Soviet guests may have learned less of value in the United States than their hosts may have expected.) But in this world of diverse cultures it is hardly a new or surprising discovery that the way of getting things done in one society may sometimes be incongruous with the goals or viewpoints of another society. When such differences are overlooked and bypassed, common ground for mutually beneficial exchange of experience can usually be found.

No unusual improvement in United States acquisition of Soviet publications can be reported as a result of the visits. But this situation has not been entirely unsatisfactory for the past several years, and had been gradually improving long before the official exchange of librarians occurred. Further improvement, in any event, can be expected not from a single visit of official representatives of the American Library Association, but rather from later visits of librarians of university and research libraries. The delegation and its sponsors always considered their visit one which might help pave the way for subsequent visits of many other librarians specializing in various fields. It is too early to judge whether or not the mission was successful in this respect.

There have been several fruitful and cordial exchanges of information between members of the delegation and their Soviet counterparts in the months following the official visits. These communications should, however, be multiplied manyfold—an objective that can be best accomplished by follow-up exchanges of more Soviet and American librarians.

It was the principal objective—to contribute to the improvement of relations between the two countries—which, the delegation believes, was best served by the exchange of visits. Considering the magnitude and complexity of the task, the contribution of a small group of people representing a small sector of United States intellectual and cultural life and devoting only a few weeks of concentrated attention could hardly be expected to be of major proportions. Indeed the impact of this exchange on general relations between the United States and the USSR is immeasurable, not only because it is intangible but also because it is so small. Nevertheless, the delegation is convinced that a positive influence was exerted. In these days any such contribution, however small, is significant. And when it is added to similar contributions made by exchanges of teachers,

publishers, writers, musicians, and so on, the cumulative effect takes on noticeable proportions.

The principal ingredient in the favorable outcome of the exchanges was increased understanding of the society and *modus operandi* of both countries—an understanding that can be communicated to numerous citizens in each country by librarians in their role as conveyers of ideas through books. Each delegation, United States and Soviet, tried to understand what it saw and heard. With few exceptions the hosts in each country tried to assist in this understanding by speaking frankly and revealing fully. Consequently much understanding was achieved and much misunderstanding avoided. For example, the United States delegation believes that it understands why the Soviet group looked for and disapproved of anti-Soviet books on the shelves of United States libraries; the Soviet delegation perhaps understands why the United States group looked for and disapproved of the misrepresentation of United States authors on the shelves of Soviet libraries. The United States delegation understands why Soviet libraries could hardly function without the staggering amount of statistics they compile; perhaps the Soviet delegation understands why United States libraries could hardly function *with* them. And so on.

Understanding by no means implies approval or even necessarily sympathy with everything observed. But it does discover areas of common goals and interests in which representatives of both countries can collaborate with mutual benefit. The delegation believes that the exchange visits of United States and Soviet librarians laid a modest foundation upon which further understanding can be built and that ultimately librarianship in both countries will be improved as a result.

Appendix

A LIST OF INSTITUTIONS AND PRINCIPAL OFFICIALS VISITED

In the Soviet Union, as in the United States, some institutions are popularly known by names different from their official titles—often an abbreviated version of a long title. In the following list the popular name—if any, and when known—appears first, followed by a literal translation of the full Russian title and then a transliteration of it. Otherwise, only the literal translation and the transliteration are given. (No attempt is made to list the Ukrainian or Uzbek titles of libraries and other institutions in those republics; the delegation understood that the Russian titles of these were direct translations.)

For the convenience of United States libraries which may wish to engage in exchange of publications, and of United States librarians who may make follow-up visits to the USSR, the addresses of the Soviet libraries and institutions in this list are provided. In a few cases the delegation failed to obtain exact street addresses.

The names and positions of those officials whom the delegates met in the institutions visited are listed largely because the delegates wish in this small way to acknowledge the hospitality extended to them. The delegation is indebted to Mr. Vladimir Orlov for his assistance in gathering these names at those visits where he was present. Inevitably there are errors of spelling individuals' names, omission of first or second names or even initials, and incorrect designation of some positions. Inevitably there are also unfortunate omissions of entire names. Such errors and omissions are entirely the responsibility of the delegation—not of their courteous hosts or of Mr. Orlov. To all those whose names were inadvertently missed, or misspelled, the delegation offers its apology.

For each institution the Director's (or Deputy's) name is listed

first, the rest of the staff being in alphabetical order regardless of rank. In accordance with United States style the patronymics, or middle names, are abbreviated.

MOSCOW and vicinity

I. The Ministry of Culture

ul. Kuibysheva, 10

Moscow, USSR

(Ministry of Culture of the USSR)

(Ministerstvo Kultury SSSR)

Furtseva, Ekaterina A., *Minister of Culture*

Butrova, Alla A., *American Desk, Foreign Affairs Dept.*

Danilov, Nikolai N., *Deputy Minister of Culture*

Efimova, Anna N., *Deputy Chief of Main Library Inspection*

Gavrilov, Nikandr F., *Chief of Main Library Inspection*

Shchetinin, Stanislav I., *American Desk, Foreign Affairs Dept.*

II. Lenin Library

ul. Kalinina, 3

Moscow G-19, USSR

(V. I. Lenin State Library of the USSR)

(Gosudarstvennaia Ordena Lenina Biblioteka SSSR

imeni V. I. Lenina)

Kondakov, Ivan P., *Director*

Abrikosova, Feoktista S., *First Deputy Director*

Bagrova, Irina Iu., *Head, Reference and Bibliographic Dept.*

Berdnikova, Kseniia K., *Head, Children's and Young People's Dept.*

Diakonova, Olga A., *Acting Head, Acquisitions Dept.*

Ivanova, Stefanida Kh., *Head, Book Preservation and Restoration Dept.*

Kanevskii, Boris P., *Head, International Book Exchange Dept.*

Khrenkova, Aleksandra A., *Deputy Director*

Klevenskii, Mark M., *Chief Librarian*

Klychkova, Tamara V., *Head, Reader Service Dept.*

Korobina, Nina A., *Head, Stack Dept.*

Kozlovskii, Benedikt I., *Head, Rare Book Dept.*

Orlov, Vladimir N., *Executive Secretary*

Semēnova, Galina A., *Deputy Head, Research and Methodological Dept.*

Starodubtseva, Zinanda I., *Head, Map Dept.*

Tiulina, Nataliia I., *Specialist in Foreign Library
Experience*

Zerchaninova, Serafima A., *Head, Interlibrary Loan Dept.*

Zhitomirskaia, Sarra V., *Head, Manuscript Dept.*

III. All-Union Book Chamber

Kremlevskaia nab., d. 1/9

Moscow G-19, USSR

(The Soviet Book Chamber)

(Vsesoiuznaia Knizhnaia Palata)

Kukharkov, Nikolai N., *Director*

Lavrova, Nadezhda A., *Librarian*

Serebrennikov, Aleksandr I., *Deputy Director for Research
Work*

IV. The Institute of Scientific Information, also referred to
as VINITI

Baltiiskii Poselok, 42-b

Moscow D-219, USSR

(All-Union Institute of Scientific and Technical
Information)

(Vsesoiuznyi Institut Nauchnoi i Tekhnicheskoi
Informatsii)

Lisichkin, Stepan M., *Deputy Director*

Chakhmakhchev, Aleksandr G., *Chief of Protocol*

Fedotov, Anton N., *Assistant Chief, Acquisitions Dept.*

Shchegolev, Lev P., *Section Head in the Dept. of
Mechanization and Automation*

Vakhitov, Adam Kh., *Chief, Acquisitions Dept.*

Vasilev, Anton M., *Chief, Dept. of Mechanization and
Automation of Information Work*

Vtiurin, Vadim I., *Secretary of Protocol and Interpreter*

V. The Foreign Literature Library

ul. Razina, 12

Moscow K-12, USSR

(All-Union State Library of Foreign Literature)

(Vsesoiuznaia Gosudarstvennaia Biblioteka
Inostrannoi Literatury)

Rudomino, Margarita I., *Director*

Giliarevskii, Ruzhero S., *Vice-Director*

Grivnin, Vladimir S., *Oriental Dept.*
 Levidova, Inna M., *Bibliographer of American and
 English Literature*
 Manukhina, Irina T., *Book Exchange Dept.*
 Rybak, Nina Ia., *Dept. of Library Science*

VI. The Fundamental Library, or The Social Science Library
 of the Academy of Sciences

ul. Frunze, 11

Moscow G-19, USSR

(The Fundamental Library of Social Sciences of the
 Academy of Sciences of the USSR)

(Fundamentalnaia Biblioteka Obshchestvennykh Nauk
 Akademii Nauk SSSR)

Shunkov, Viktor I., *Director*

Krichevskii, Grigoriĭ G., *Chief Librarian*

Pavlova, Antonina I., *Correspondent for Interlibrary Loans*

VII. Moscow University Library

Mokhovaia ul., 9

Moscow D-219, USSR

(Gorkii State Research Library of the M. V.
 Lomonosov State University in Moscow)

(Nauchnaia Biblioteka imeni A. M. Gorkogo
 Moskovskogo Gosudarstvennogo Universiteta
 imeni M. V. Lomonosova)

Belozerov, Nikolai I., *Deputy Director*

Chistiakov, Roman I., *Chief, Section of International Book
 Exchange*

Semēnov, Mikhail S., *Chief, Dept. of Acquisition of
 Foreign Literature*

VIII. Moscow City Library

B. Bronnaia 20/1

Moscow, USSR

(N. A. Nekrasov Central Municipal Public Library)

(Gorodskaiia Tsentralnaia Publichnaia Biblioteka
 imeni N. A. Nekrasova)

Volkova, Varvara V., *Director*

Aronovich, Aleksandr M., *Chairman, Library Council*

Kuskova, Iuliia N., *Head of Reading Room*

Lukoianova, Viktorina F., *Head of Loan Dept.*
Sokolovskaia, Elizaveta L., *Deputy Director*

- IX. The Lenin District Library
5 Cheremushkinskaia ul., 15
Korpus 5
Moscow, USSR
(Raionnaia Biblioteka No. 173 Leninskogo Raiona
g. Moskvy)

Kharakhonov, Mikhail G., *Director*

- X. Library of the Palace of Culture of the ZIL Automobile
Factory
Vostochnaia, 4
Moscow, USSR
(Biblioteka Dvortsia Kultury Avtomobilnogo Zavoda
imeni Likhachëva)

Kukina, Elizaveta S., *Director*

- XI. Municipal Administrative Officials and Organs for the
City of Moscow

Anosova, Liubov M., *Head of the Section for Libraries of
the Municipal Office for Methodology* (present at
delegation's visit to Moscow City Library)
Kudriashova, Nina I., *Inspectorate of Libraries, Moscow
City Soviet* (present at delegation's visit to Moscow
City Library)

Moscow Oblast Book Trade Agency
Proezd Khudozhestvennogo Teatra, 4
Moscow, USSR
(Moskniga-Moskovskaia Oblastnaia Kontora Knizhnoi
Torgovli)

Polivanovskii, Sergei E., *Director*

Book Collector for Technical Libraries
Neglinnaia, 9
Moscow, USSR
(Kollektor Tekhnicheskikh Bibliotek Mosknigi)

Vishniakova, Tamara V., *Director*

- XII. Kalinin Oblast Library
 Svobodnyi Pereulok, d. 28
 Kalinin, USSR
 (Kalinin Oblast Library named for A. M. Gorkii)
 (Kalininskaia Oblastnaia Biblioteka imeni A. M.
 Gorkogo)

LENINGRAD and vicinity

- I. The Saltykov-Shchedrin Library, or The Leningrad
 Public Library
 Sadovaia ul., 18
 Leningrad D-69, USSR
 (State Public Library named for M. E. Saltykov-
 Shchedrin)
 (Gosudarstvennaia Publichnaia Biblioteka imeni
 M. E. Saltykova-Shchedrina)

Barashenkov, Viktor M., *Director*
 Abramishvili, Andrei Z., *Chief, Dept. of Literature in
 National Languages of the USSR*
 Afanasev, Iurii S., *Executive Secretary*
 Arseneva, Ekaterina I., *Chief, Children's Dept.*
 Babintsev, Serafim M., *Chief, Manuscript Dept.*
 Bartnovskaia, Fani D., *Member of Staff, Interpreter*
 Beliaeva, Valentina L., *Head, General Reading Room*
 Bogomolova, Praskovia S., *Chief, Reference Dept.*
 Bokhanovich, Evgeniia S., *Chief, Acquisitions Dept.*
 Golubeva, Olga D., *Assistant Director, Library Research
 Work*
 Grigoriant, Tatiana S., *Chief, Newspaper Dept.*
 Kirik, Oleg K., *Chief Bibliographer, International Book
 Exchange Section*
 Kirpicheva, Iraida K., *Chief, Dept. of Librarianship and
 Bibliography*
 Kodes, Iraida I., *Chief, Map Dept.*
 Kopreeva, Tatiana N., *Chief, Rare Books Dept.*
 Kozhevnikov, Evgenii I., *Chief, Cataloging Dept.*
 Mamaev, Aleksandr I., *Superintendent, Librarianship and
 Foreign Languages Training Dept.*
 Niuksha, Iuliia P., *Chief, Book Preservation Dept.*
 Pavlova-Silvanskaia, Leonida N., *Chief, Music Dept.*
 Pogudin, Vasilii I., *Chief, International Book Exchange
 Section*

Sharkova, Galina F., *Head, Science Reading Room*
Timofeev, Nikolai D., *Assistant Director, Library Research Work*
Urusova, Raisa I., *Member of Staff, Interpreter*
Vraskaia, Olga B., *Chief, Prints Dept.*

II. Library of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR
Birzhevaia Linia, No. 1
Leningrad, Center, USSR
(Biblioteka Akademii Nauk SSSR)

Filippov, Mikhail S., *Director*
Godeliuk, Olga Iu., *Head, International Book Exchange*
Moiseeva, Ariadna A., *Deputy Director*
Smolin, Georgii Ia., *Executive Secretary*

III. Leningrad University Library
(The A. M. Gorkii Research Library of the A. A. Zhdanov State University in Leningrad)
(Leningradskii Gosudarstvennyi Universitet imeni A. A. Zhdanova; Nauchnaia Biblioteka imeni A. M. Gorkogo)

Shilov, L. A., *Director*
Romanovskaia, K. M., *Deputy Director*

IV. Leningrad Library Institute
Dvortsovaia nab., 4
Leningrad, USSR
(The Leningrad State Library Institute named for N. K. Krupskaja)
(Leningradskii Gosudarstvennyi Bibliotechnyi Institut imeni N. K. Krupskoi)

Skrypnev, N. P., *Director*
Arkhipova, M. K., *Head of the Chair of Bibliography*
Firsov, G. G., *Deputy Director*
Gilinskii, I. N., *Head of the Chair of Foreign Languages*
Pozdniakova, G. I., *Deputy Director, Correspondence Dept.*
Sakharov, V. F., *Head of the Chair of Librarianship*
Zhitomirova, N. N., *Head of the Chair of Children's Literature*

V. Leningrad Publishing House, or Lenizdat
Torgovyi per., 3
Leningrad, USSR

(Leningradskoe Izdatelstvo)

Popov, Leonid V., *Deputy Director*

- VI. Rozhdestveno Village Library
Selo Rozhdestveno
Gatchina Raion
Leningrad Oblast, USSR
(Biblioteka Sela Rozhdestveno)

Semiriagina, Vera L., *Supervisor*

- VII. Leningrad Municipal and Regional Officials (all of the following accompanied the delegation when it visited the Rozhdestveno Village Library)

Bondarenko, Sergei N., *Head, Dept. of Culture, Gatchina Raion, Leningrad Oblast*

Larkina, Evgeniia S., *Senior Inspector, Leningrad City Administration of Culture*

Salosina, Maria I., *Head, Leningrad Oblast Library*

KIEV and vicinity

- I. Ministry of Culture of the Ukrainian SSR
Kiev, USSR

Shablii, Grigorii M., *Deputy Minister of Culture and Chairman, Library Council*

- II. Kiev Public Library, or Academy of Sciences Library, Kiev
Vladimirskaia, 62
Kiev 17, USSR
(State Public Library of the Academy of Sciences of the Ukrainian SSR)
(Gosudarstvennaia Publichnaia Biblioteka Akademii Nauk Ukrainskoi SSR)

Donchak, Viktor S., *Director*

Kokarev, Leonid B., *Head, Dept. of Foreign Acquisition*

Rud, Nikita P., *Deputy Director, Science Section*

Savchuk, Boris S., *Senior Bibliographer*

Turchenko, Alla M., *Head, Art Section*

- III. The Ukrainian Republic Library, Kiev

ul. Kirova, 1

Kiev, USSR

(State Republic Library named for the Communist
Party of the Soviet Union)

(Gosudarstvennaia Respublikanskaia Biblioteka
imeni KPSS)

Levshin, Ilya N., *Director*

Babich, Vasilii S., *Head, International Book Exchange
Section*

Guzenko, Evdokiia S., *Chief Bibliographer*

Iashchenko, Varvara E., *Head, Dept. of Foreign Literature*

Kagan, Anna B., *Head, Processing Dept.*

Molchanova, Vera G., *Head, Acquisitions Dept.*

Prikhodko, Valentina I., *Head, Loan Dept.*

Ravinskii, Aleksandr A., *Head, Reader Service Dept.*

Shazhko, Ivan V., *Head, Research and Bibliography*

Sosnitskii, Georgii G., *Chief Librarian*

Tretiak, Grigorii M., *Chief Librarian*

Zaritskaia, Tamara G., *Head, Reader Service Section,
Dept. of Foreign Literature*

IV. Kiev University Library

(The Research Library of Kiev State University
named for T. G. Shevchenko)

(Kievskii Gosudarstvennyi Universitet imeni
T. G. Shevchenko, Nauchnaia Biblioteka)

Kuzmenko, Uliana S., *Director*

Nedostup, Nataliia M., *Deputy Director*

Roitenberg, Mark M., *Head, Acquisition and Processing
Dept.*

V. Library of Shoe Factory No. 4

(Biblioteka Obuvnoi Fabriki No. 4)

VI. Borispol Raion Library

Kiev Oblast

Ukrainian SSR

USSR

(Raionnaia Biblioteka Borispolskogo Raiona
Kievskoi Oblasti)

Shulga (Mrs.), *Director*

VII. Officials in Kiev and Borispol

- Troianovskii (Mr.), *Deputy Director, Methodological Section, Republic Technical Library* (acted as host of the delegation for the visit to the Library of Shoe Factory No. 4, Kiev)
- Goncharenko (Mr.), *Director, House of Culture, Borispol* (present during visit of delegation to the Borispol Raion Library, which is housed in the building of the House of Culture)

TASHKENT

I. Ministry of Culture
(Ministerstvo Kultury Uzbekskoi SSR)

Sarkazova, Maksuma Iu., *Senior Inspector of Libraries*

II. Uzbek State Library

ul. Lenina, 36

Tashkent, USSR

(State Library of the Uzbek SSR named for Alisher Navoi)

(Gosudarstvennaia Biblioteka Uzbekskoi SSR imeni Alishera Navoi)

Zufarov, Makhmud Iu., *Director*

Alashnikova, Anastasiia I., *Deputy Director for Research Work*

Aleksandrova, Evdokiia S., *Head, Reader Service Dept.*

Arakeliants, Gaene A., *Chief Bibliographer*

Aramiants, Amaliia A., *Acting Head, Methods Dept.*

Bulgakov, Arkadii P., *Head, Acquisitions Dept.*

Dain, Mariia P., *Head, Art Section*

Keizer, Stanislava I., *Deputy Head, Reference and Bibliography Dept.*

Kitkovich, Ekaterina N., *Head, Foreign Literature Section*

Kurbatova, Valentina G., *Head, Section of Mass Work*

Manin, Nikolai M., *Head, Exchange Section*

Penkova, Liudmila P., *Head, Interlibrary Loan*

Romanov, N. P. (Professor), *Chairman, Library Council*

Shapiro, Rita Iu., *Head, Processing Dept.*

Umarova, Mukhtabar, *Senior Librarian*

III. Tashkent University Library¹

ul. Kuibysheva, 8

Tashkent, USSR

(Fundamental Library of the Tashkent State University
named for V. I. Lenin)(Fundamentalnaia Biblioteka Tashkentskogo Gosu-
darstvennogo Universiteta imeni V. I. Lenina)Zhelezniakov, D. F., *Director*Apukhtina, V. S., *Head, Foreign Section*Guliamkhodzhaev, N., *Deputy Director*Kormilitsyn, A. I., *Bibliographer*Maslova, O. V., *Head, Dept. of Bibliography*Toporkova, N. P., *Senior Librarian, Foreign Section*

IV. Various Institutions

To save time for the delegation, officials of other libraries and related institutions in Tashkent courteously joined the United States delegation at Tashkent University Library and made themselves available for questioning:

Ageev, A. I., *Head, Bibliographic Dept., Library of the
Academy of Sciences of the Uzbek SSR*Karieva, Munisa Kh., *Director, Book Chamber of the
Uzbek SSR*Kasymova, A. G., *Head, Chair of Librarianship and
Bibliography, Tashkent Pedagogical Institute*Umarov, Nabi G., *Director, Library of the Academy of
Sciences of the Uzbek SSR*

SAMARKAND

I. Samarkand University Library²

Bulvar Gorkogo

Samarkand, USSR

(Library of Samarkand State University named for
Alisher Navoi)(Samarkandskii Gosudarstvennyi Universitet imeni
Alishera Navoi, Biblioteka)Abbasov, Akhtam, *Director*

¹Formerly (until 1960) named Central-Asiatic University Library.²Formerly (until 1960) named Uzbek State University Library.

CATALOGS MAINTAINED BY THE ALL-UNION BOOK CHAMBER¹

Name of Catalog	Types of Literature in It	Period of Coverage	Languages	Number of Entries (Cards) (as of 1957)
General Alphabetical Catalog of Books	Books	1917 to date	All languages	2,500,000
Catalog of Series of Books	Books	1917 to date	All languages	150,000
General Alphabetical Catalog of Periodicals and Serials	Periodicals, transactions, research papers, and other serials	1917 to date	Russian	35,000
Alphabetical Catalog of Periodicals and Serials (annual)	Periodicals, transactions, research papers, and other serials	Current year	All languages	
General Alphabetical Catalog of Newspapers (in stage of being organized)	Newspapers	Intended to represent newspapers 1917 to date At present lists newspapers 1920-33	Intended to represent newspapers in all languages At present contains only Russian-language newspapers	
Alphabetical Catalog of Newspapers for a 5-year period	Newspapers	Intended to represent newspapers for the current 5-year period At present lists newspapers 1956-57	All languages	
Alphabetical Catalog of Musical Scores	Musical scores whether published separately or in books, periodicals, and newspapers	Separately published musical scores 1931 to date Scores published in books, periodicals, and newspapers 1939 to date	All languages	100,000
Alphabetical Catalog of Periodical and Newspaper Articles	Articles from newspapers, periodicals, and other serials	Articles from periodicals 1928 to date Articles from newspapers 1936 to date	Russian	3,000,000
Alphabetical Catalog of Reviews	Reviews in periodicals and newspapers	1934 to date	Russian	110,000
General Systematic Catalog of Books	Books	1920 to date	Russian	1,200,000
Systematic Card Index of Periodicals and Other Serials	Periodicals, transactions, research papers, and other serials	1940 to date	All languages	
Systematic Catalog of Printed Graphic Materials (in stage of being organized)	Various types of printed graphic material (portraits, posters, slogans, prints, etc.)	1947-52	All languages	

¹"Systematic"
(Classed)

Catalogs	Catalog of Dissertation Abstracts	Abstracts of dissertations published in the USSR	1954 to date	All languages,	38,000
	Systematic Catalog of Periodical and Newspaper Articles	Articles	Articles from periodicals 1954 to date. Articles from newspapers 1957 to date	Russian	175,000
Subject Catalogs (Geographical)	Subject Catalog of Books	Books	1941 to date	Russian	400,000
	Subject Catalog of the Card Index to Articles and Dissertation Abstracts on Medicine	Articles from periodicals, serials, and dissertation abstracts	Articles October, 1955, to date. Dissertation abstracts 1956 to date	Russian	40,000
	Geographical Catalog	Books, articles, maps	Books 1940 to date. Articles 1950 to date. Maps 1956 to date	Russian	160,000
	Catalog of Foreign Literature	Books, articles	Books 1935 to date. Articles 1955 to date	All languages (except articles which are in Russian language only)	24,000
	Geographical Card Index of Periodicals and Other Serials	Periodicals, transactions, research papers, and other serials	1924 to date	All languages	
Catalogs of Publications by Publishers	Geographical Card Index of Newspapers	Newspapers	1938 to date	All languages,	
	Publishers' Catalogs — Books	Books	1941 to date	All languages	600,000
	Publishers' Catalog — Musical Scores	Separate editions of musical scores	1941 to date	Text in all languages	20,000
	Publishers' Catalog — Printed Graphic Materials	Various types of graphic materials (portraits, posters, slogans, prints, etc.) published separately	1941 to date	Text in all languages	100,000
Catalogs by Language	Publishers' Catalog — Geographical Maps	Separately published geographical maps	1941 to date	Text in all languages	3,000
	Catalog of Books by Languages	Books	1917 to date	All languages of the peoples of the USSR (other than Russian) and of foreign countries	400,000

¹Source: Vsesoiuznaya Knizhnaya Palata, *Katalogi Vsesoiuznoi Knizhnoi Palaty (Spravka)* (Moscow, 1958), p 20-24 and *passim*. Some numbers were not available for the last column of the table

А. Учет читателей и посещаемости

За м-ц 195 г

Дата	Записавшиеся читатели	В т о м ч и с л е										Количество посещений				
		Рабочие	Крестьяне	Служащие	Учащиеся			По возрасту			По полу		По национальн.			
					Высш. школы	Сред. школы	Прочие	До 16 лет	16-23 лет	Свыше 23 лет	М.		Ж.			
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Убыло за м-ц																
Состоит																

THE DAILY LOG BOOK

Each USSR public library has a booklet (7-3/8" x 11-1/2") in which to keep a record of activities day by day. The booklet contains three different forms, twelve copies of each (one page for each month).

The first form is shown here—Russian original on the left, English translation on the right—and is intended for a tally of readers and visitors. The second form, not shown, covers circulation of books, journals, and pamphlets broken down by broad subject categories. The third form, also not shown, provides for a detailed account of the library's activities in stimulating interest in reading. On it are recorded the number of book readings, reports, literary evenings, exhibitions, reading lists, etc.; number of people served and their occupation; projects of various kinds, by subject matter and type of activity, and an evaluation of each.

ПРОПАГАНДА ЛИТЕРАТУРЫ ПО ВОПРОСАМ ТЕХНИКИ

[illegible]

Показатели	План на 1960 г	Выполн за 1960 г	% % вы- полн год пла- на
Число читателей	165 000	182 301	110,5
Число посещений читальных залов	2 220 000	2 282 199	102,8
Выдано книг в читальных залах	11 415 000	11 820 631	103,5
Число абонентов	8 155	8 155	100,0
Выдано книг абонентам	425 000	434 473	102,2
Выполнено библиографических спра- вок	124 000	135 493	109,3
Организовано выставок	750	793	105,7
Проведено лекций, докладов, литера- турных вечеров	252	299	118,6
Проведено библиографических обзор- ов	105	114	108,6
Поступило в Библиотеку			
книг и др неперіод изданий	471 000	508 804	108,0
журналов (№№)	440 000	478 494	108,7
газет (№№)	1 570 000	1 600 670	101,9
Международный книгообмен			
отправлено за границу	226 000	254 371	112,5
получено из-за границы	200 000	213 593	106,8
Обработано произведений печати			
книг, нот, карт и др неперіод изд	297 000	318 754	107,3
журналов (№№)	237 000	255 194	107,7
газет (год комп)	11 200	12 762	114,0
Изготовлено микрофильмов			
негативов (кадров)	5 500 000	5 528 476	100,2
позитивов >	2 300 000	2 301 146	100,0
Реставрировано книг (станд листов)	376 000	377 794	100,5
Переплетено книг, журналов, газет	260 000	267 257	102,8
Издано методических пособий и др- гих работ Библиотеки (типограф- ских)			
названий	260	262	100,8
печ листов	1 218	1 251	102,7

Lenin Library Annual Statistics of Activities
(Showing Comparison of Plan and Achievement)¹

Indicators	Plan for 1960	Fulfilled for 1960	Percentage of Fulfillment of Annual Plan
Number of readers	165,000	182,301	110.5
Number of visits (attendance) in reading rooms	2,220,000	2,282,199	102.8
Number of books issued in reading rooms	11,415,000	11,820,631	103.5
Number of borrowers	8,155	8,155	100.0
Books issued to borrowers	425,000	434,473	102.2
Bibliographical inquiries answered	124,000	135,493	109.3
Exhibits organized	750	793	105.7
Lectures, reports, and literary evenings	252	299	118.6
Bibliographic surveys	105	114	108.6
Library acquisitions:			
Books and other nonperiodical publications	471,000	508,804	108.0
Journals (no.)	440,000	478,494	108.7
Newspapers (no.)	1,570,000	1,600,670	101.9
International book exchange:			
Sent abroad	226,000	254,371	112.5
Received from abroad	200,000	213,593	106.8
Publications processed:			
Books, sheet music, maps, and other nonperiodical publications	297,000	318,754	107.3
Journals (no.)	237,000	255,194	107.7
Newspapers (sets) ²	11,200	12,762	114.0
Microfilms produced:			
Negative (frames)	5,500,000	5,528,476	100.2
Positive (frames)	2,300,000	2,301,146	100.0
Books restored (standard sheets) ³	376,000	377,794	100.5
Books, journals, and newspapers bound	260,000	267,257	102.8
Systematic aids and other (printed) works published by the Library:			
Titles	260	262	100.8
Printed sheets ³	1,218	1,251	102.7

¹Moscow, Publichnaia Biblioteka [Library of Congress corporate entry for Lenin Library], *Gosudarstvennaia Ordena Lenina Biblioteka SSSR imeni V. I. Lenina v 1960 godu* [Preliminary Annual Report of the Lenin Library, Moscow, for the year 1960] (Moscow: n.p., 1961), p. 6

²I.e., annual volumes

³A precisely measured size of book paper, commonly used in Soviet statistics on printing—roughly, a United States signature of 16 pages

Bibliography—Recent English-Language Material on USSR Libraries and Librarianship

Compiled by PAUL L. HORECKY

This bibliography contains a selection of recent English-language books and articles published on numerous aspects of USSR library affairs and librarianship and covering, as a rule, the period from 1955 to May 1, 1962. In a few exceptional cases items with older imprints were included because they were thought to be of continued timeliness and relevance. The arrangement is alphabetic, and the Library of Congress system of transliterating the Cyrillic alphabet is followed. Whenever author names appear in the original text in different transliteration, they are repeated in this bibliography in parentheses.

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